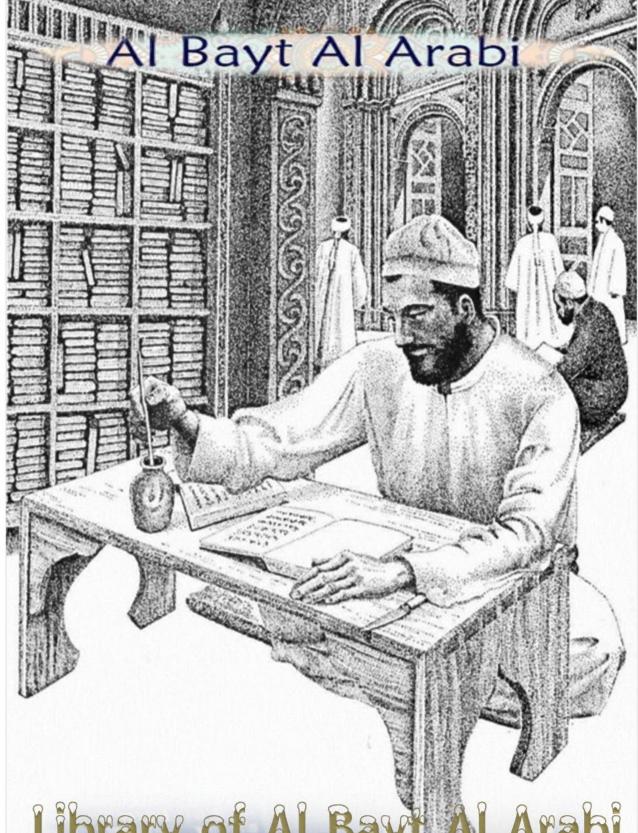
Dialect Geography of Doloction

Syria-Palestine
1000-586 B.C.E.



W. Randall Garr



Library of Al Bay Arabi

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DIALECT GEOGRAPHY OF SYRIA-PALESTINE, 1000–586 B.C.E.

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W. RANDALL GARR

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For my mother and the memory of my father

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ABBREVIATIONS

ABL. Robert Francis Harper, Assyrian and Babylonian Letters Belonging to the Kouyunjik Collection of the British Museum. ADAJ Annual of the Department of Antiquities of Jordan. ADD C. H. W. Johns, Assyrian Deeds and Documents. AF Franz Rosenthal, Die aramaistische Forschung seit Th. Nöldeke's Veröffentlichungen. AfO Archiv für Orientforschung. AION Annali dell'Istituto orientale di Napoli (Nuova Serie). AJBAAustralian Journal of Biblical Archaeology. AJSL American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures. Akk. Akkadian. ANET3 James B. Pritchard (ed.), Ancient Near Eastern Texts Relating to the Old Testament. 3rd ed. with Supplement. AOAT Alter Orient und Altes Testament. AoF Altorientalische Forschungen.

Arab.

ArOr

Arabic.

Archiv Orientální.

Arsl.T. Arslan Tash Phoenician texts.

AS Anatolian Studies.

ASOR American Schools of Oriental Research.

AUSS Andrews University Seminary Studies.

BA Beiträge zur Assyriologie und semitischen Sprachwissenschaft (1889–1927); The Biblical Archaeologist (1938–).

Bulletin of the American Schools of Oriental Research.

BH Biblical Hebrew.

Bibl Biblica.

BASOR

BiOr Bibliotheca Orientalis.

BJPES Bulletin of the Jewish Palestine Exploration Society.

B-L Hans Bauer and Pontus Leander, Historical Grammatik der hebräischen Sprache des Alten Testamentes.

BMAP Emil G. Kraeling (ed.), The Brooklyn Museum Aramaic Papyri.

BMB Bulletin du Musée de Beyrouth.

Bus. Buseirah ostracon.

BZAW Beiheft zur Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft

C Consonant.

CBQ Catholic Biblical Quarterly.

CIS Corpus Inscriptionum Semiticarum.

Cit. Amman Citadel Inscription.

CTA Andrée Herdner, Corpus des tablettes en cunéiformes alphabétiques découvertes à Ras Shamra-Ugarit de 1929 à 1939.

EA El-Amarna.

EHO Frank M. Cross and David N. Freedman, Early Hebrew Orthography.

El Eretz-Israel.

ESA Epigraphic South Arabian.

Eth. Ethiopic.

Fekh. Fekheriyeh Aramaic inscription.

GAG Wolfram von Soden, Grundriss der akkadischen Grammatik

GKC Gesenius' Hebrew Grammar, edited by E. Kautzsch and A. E. Cowley. 28th ed.

GvG Carl Brockelmann, Grundriss der vergleichenden

Grammatik der semitischen Sprachen. 2 vols.

H Hadad inscription (KAI 214).

Hesh. Ost. Heshbon ostracon.

HTR Harvard Theological Review. HUCA Hebrew Union College Annual. IEJ Israel Exploration Journal.

IJAL International Journal of American Linguistics.

JANES Journal of the Ancient Near Eastern Society of Co-

lumbia University.

JAOS Journal of the American Oriental Society.

JBL Journal of Biblical Literature.

JCS Journal of Cuneiform Studies.

JJS Journal of Jewish Studies.

JKF Jahrbuch für kleinasiatische Forschung.

JNES Journal of Near Eastern Studies.

JNSL Journal of Northwest Semitic Languages.

JPOS Journal of the Palestine Oriental Society.

JSS Journal of Semitic Studies.

KAI Herbert Donner and Wolfgang Röllig, Kanaanäische

und aramäische Inschriften. 3 vols.

KAI Ibid. (text number).

Lach. Lachish letter. Lg. Language.

MDOG Mitteilungen der Deutschen Orient-Gesellschaft.

Mur. Murabba'ât Hebrew inscription.

MUSJ Mélanges de l'Université Saint-Joseph.

MVÄG Mitteilungen der Vorderasiatisch-Aegyptischen Gesellschaft.

NESE Neue Ephemeris für Semitische Epigraphie. NP Neo-Punic inscription (see KAI 3: 74–77).

NSI George A. Cooke, A Text-Book of North-Semitic In-

scriptions.

NWS Northwest Semitic.

O Object.

OLP Orientalia Lovaniensia Periodica.
OLZ Orientalistische Literaturzeitung.

Or Orientalia (Nova series).

xiv ABBREVIATIONS

Or Ant Oriens Antiquus.

P Panammu inscription (KAI 215).

PAPhS Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society. Palestine Exploration Fund, Quarterly Statement. PEFOS

Palestine Exploration Quarterly. PEQ

PN Personal name.

PPGJohannes Friedrich, Phönizisch-Punische Grammatik. PPG^2 Johannes Friedrich and Wolfgang Röllig, Phönizisch-Punische Grammatik. 2nd ed.

ODAP Quarterly of the Department of Antiquities of Palestine.

Revue d'Assyriologie et d'archéologie orientale. RA

RBRevue biblique.

RHRRevue de l'histoire des religions.

RS Revue sémitique. RSF Rivista di studi fenici.

RSO Rivista degli studi orientali.

S Subject.

Society of Biblical Literature, Monograph Series. SBLMS

Sf. Sfire inscription (KAI 222–224). Sir. Tell Siran bottle inscription. Syro-Mesopotamian Studies. SMS

UT Cyrus H. Gordon, Ugaritic Textbook.

UT Ibid. (text number).

V Verb. V Vowel.

ZDPV

VESO William F. Albright, The Vocalization of the Egyptian

Syllabic Orthography.

VTVetus Testamentum.

VTS Vetus Testamentum, Supplement.

WO Die Welt des Orients.

WZKM Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde des Morgenlandes. ZA Zeitschrift für Assyriologie und verwandte Gebiete. ZAW Zeitschrift für die alttestamentliche Wissenschaft.

Zeitschrift der Deutschen Morgenländischen Gesell-ZDMGschaft.

Zeitschrift des Deutschen Palästina-Vereins.

Zeitschrift für Semitistik und verwandte Gebiete. ZS

INTRODUCTION

Dialectal variation in a given area is not only a linguistic phenomenon but also a by-product of historical, political, and socioeconomic forces. Other factors also influence dialect formation, be they the physical contours of the land (for example, mountains), political boundaries, trade routes, or religious taboos. Dialectal variation results from a complex of factors which affect, either directly or indirectly, human communication.

The area under examination is Syria-Palestine, between 1000 and 586 B.C.E. This period was selected for several reasons. First, it marks the beginning and end of the Israelite state; 1000 B.C.E. is a convenient date for the beginning of the Davidic rule, and 586 B.C.E. marks the fall of Jerusalem.² The dates chosen thus represent the time during which Israel was a political and military entity. Second, something of the history of Syria-Palestine during this period is known.³ The alliances of the individual nations, their battles, their social and economic contacts—these types of human interaction affect linguistic contact between peoples. Third, these dates were chosen for the purely practical reason of including as many texts as possible in this study. The larger the data base, the greater the possibility of drawing accurate linguistic conclusions from the available

inscriptions. Thus the period 1000-586 B.C.E. provides an acceptable chronological frame from both the historical and linguistic viewpoint.

The relationship among the Northwest Semitic speech forms⁴ of Syria-Palestine from 1000 to 586 B.C.E. is complex. In this relatively small area, there appear to be a number of discrete speech forms. While some speech forms cluster into groups, as for example the Aramaic-speaking communities in the North, others appear idiosyncratic, as for example the dialect of Deir Alla. By assembling all available data, it should be possible to classify each speech form and explain the linguistic relationship among the NWS dialects.

In the past, linguistic classification of the NWS dialects has yielded differing results. For example Albright⁵ subdivided Canaanite into northern (the area around Ugarit),⁶ eastern (Syrian desert to Sinai, and parts of Palestine), southern (Phoenicia, and most of Syria-Palestine), and Hebraic branches (Jerusalem). In his Phoenician grammar, Harris⁷ adopted Albright's basic classification but divided the area into North (Ugarit), Middle (Phoenicia), and South (southern Syria, and Palestine). And Segert⁸ proposed the divisions into northern (Ugarit), inland (Hebrew/Israel), coastal (Phoenicia), and peripheral inland groups (Ammon, Moab, and Edom). These scholars either adduced one linguistic feature to support their classification or adduced no linguistic features at all; in the latter case, their general survey of the material led them to their particular classification.

Classification of the individual NWS dialects has been equally idiosyncratic. Examination of the Deir Alla dialect has yielded classifications as Old Aramaic, Ammonite, South Canaanite, Midianite, and Gileadite. Samalian has been classified as a local Aramaic Amade an independent dialect. Similarly, Ammonite is seen to be South Canaanite or North Arabic. Many of the variations in the classification of the individual dialects have resulted from the actual choice of linguistic features deemed dialectally significant for classification.

In all these cases, the classificatory scheme is methodologically constrained. Either the classification proceeds from an impression-istic inspection of the material. ¹⁸ Or, the classification is based upon those particular linguistic elements selected for examination. ¹⁹ The lack of methodological controls in both cases has made resultant classifications highly subjective. ²⁰

The method and results of dialect geography produce a new perspective on the interrelationship and classification of the NWS dialects. Dialect geography is, in effect, the study of linguistic differentiation and interrelation in a given area at a given time.²¹ It seeks a planar layout²² of all linguistic features which differentiate speech areas. Dialect geography seeks an aerial view of linguistic differentiation by plotting all dialectally significant linguistic features on a map.

On the one hand, dialect geography traces individual linguistic features throughout a region.²³ An isogloss, or linguistic boundary line, is then drawn between the areas where one feature is found and those where a different feature occurs. The isoglosses of all features mapped can then be compared to see how the distribution of isoglosses varies throughout the area. At this level, dialect geography enables the scholar to see the interrelationships between the dialects.

On the other hand, however, dialect geography is, according to Bloomfield, "the study of local differentiations in a speech-area." The focus shifts from the examination of linguistic features and their distribution to the description of individual dialect regions. Each speech area is characterized by its unique distribution, and combination, of features. Dialect geography "seeks to provide an empirical basis for conclusions about the linguistic variety that occurs in a certain locale." At this level, dialect geography enables the scholar to characterize the individual dialects.

In its utilization of every linguistic feature differentiating speech areas, dialect geography seeks a complete data base in determining dialectal relationship. All features, whether phonological, morphological, syntactic, or lexical, are charted on maps, provided that each feature sets off one dialectal region from another. The features themselves are of equal importance; no one differentiating feature is, a priori, more important than another.²⁷ The planar presentation of all such features in an area is a goal of dialect geography.

Some of the results of dialect geographical studies are important in a classification of the NWS dialects. Studies of dialect geography have shown that linguistic changes spread from one area to another, through different types of human contact. A number of changes may originate in a single place and slowly diffuse to outlying regions. Areas where such changes cluster are linguistic centers; outlying areas which display some, but not all, of the changes are marginal,

or peripheral.²⁹ An area which did not receive changes is isolated as a dialect island; conversely, a dialect island is one where a number of changes occurred but did not spread outward.³⁰ Further, areas which accept changes of two linguistic centers, or lie midway between them linguistically, are transitional, since they bear characteristics of both centers.³¹

Three³² scholars have been especially important in the application of dialect geography to Syria-Palestine.³³ Bergsträsser³⁴ is methodologically most conservative. In his study of modern, spoken Arabic dialects in Syria-Palestine, he has presented the spread of relevant linguistic data on individual maps. He has also correlated physical and social boundaries with linguistic (dialectal) divisions.³⁵ Bergsträsser has avoided classification and dialect characterization altogether³⁶ but has presented the spread of dialectally significant linguistic elements—phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical—throughout Syria-Palestine.

Harris expanded Bergsträsser's scope of inquiry in his Development of the Canaanite Dialects.³⁷ His book is properly a "linguistic history" of Syria-Palestine; Harris' principal concern is diachrony. Instead of presenting a static picture of the distribution of linguistic elements in a restricted area, as Bergsträsser intended,³⁸ Harris traced the development and diffusion of linguistic changes throughout the history of the Canaanite language group. In his concluding analysis, however, Harris returned to the synchronic domain of dialect geography and briefly characterized "the resultant dialects" which emerged in the course of the linguistic development.

Harris predicated a division of the Canaanite dialects upon a detailed analysis of the linguistic evidence. This linguistic history suggested, according to Harris, a dialectal division into coastal (Ugarit, Sam'al, and Phoenicia) and inland groups (Hebrew, Moab, and Hamat³⁹). 40 Coastal dialects were the more innovative, since many changes occurred there. Inland dialects tended to be conservative, for they not only produced few convergent changes but also did not accept every change which took place on the coast. 41 Like Bergsträsser, Harris based his linguistic divisions upon linguistic data, instead of upon an impressionistic survey of the evidence. Unlike Bergsträsser, however, Harris qualitatively evaluated the linguistic evidence and proposed a linguistic classification based upon the types of linguistic changes apparent in each area.

Rabin⁴² synthesized the work of Bergsträsser and Harris, while expanding its scope still further. Like Bergsträsser's, Rabin's study is synchronic, "ignoring the time factor and treating the various dialects as coexisting each in the location in which we first encounter it.... "43 Like Harris, Rabin applied the methodology and concepts of dialect geography to Semitic (as for example innovative and conservative areas [central and marginal] and transitional areas). On the basis of the particular distribution of linguistic elements, Rabin sought a new classification of the Semitic languages. He divided them into northern marginal (Fertile Crescent), southern marginal (Aksum influence), and central areas (Mediterranean to Arabia).44

Each of these scholars has had his methodological successors. Garbini's Il semitico di nord-ovest⁴⁵ most closely approximates Bergsträsser's approach to dialectology. In this book, Garbini traced individual phonological, accentual, and morphological features which differentiate the Northwest Semitic dialects. Like Bergsträsser. Garbini assembled and examined every linguistic feature deemed dialectally significant in NWS.46 Unlike Bergsträsser, though, Garbini's goal was the characterization of the individual dialects in a historical frame.

Harris' concluding classification of coastal vs. inland Canaanite has gained only one partial supporter. Segert⁴⁷ adopted a classification approximating Harris', dividing the Canaanite dialects into northern, coastal, inland, and peripheral inland groups. But the similarity between Segert's and Harris' divisions was largely coincidental; Harris based his conclusions upon linguistic features, whereas Segert's divisions were, in effect, largely geographical in nature.

Methodologically, however, several scholars have followed Harris' lead in distinguishing between conservative and innovative dialect(al area)s. Rabin was the first to apply this method to the classification of the Semitic languages in general. Diakonoff⁴⁸ also applied this method to the Semitic languages, but he concluded that they could be accurately divided into northern peripheral (Akkadian), northern central (NWS), southern central (Arabic dialects), and southern peripheral groups (South Arabian and Ethiopic). And finally, Garbini⁴⁹ followed Rabin by pinpointing the innovative area of the Semitic languages in Syria-Palestine itself, but attributed the innovative impulse to a progressive "Amoritization." According to Garbini, 50 Rabin's "central axis" corresponded to a proposed Amorite-Aramaic-Arabic language group.

This study employs much of the methodology which scholars have previously used. It has two goals. The first, following Bergsträsser, is the isolation and presentation of all dialectally significant linguistic features. Any feature, whether phonological, morphological, or syntactic, which divides Syria-Palestine into dialect regions is traced throughout the first-millennium NWS dialects. The result is a tabular display of the distribution of features throughout the dialects.

Whereas phonology, morphology, and syntax are employed in the dialectal analysis, it is impossible to analyze the lexicon for this purpose. Although such an analysis is potentially valid for first-millennium NWS, the extant texts do not offer sufficient lexical material to make possible an interdialectal analysis. Lexical comparison should be based upon a standardized list of core vocabulary items found in all cultures at all times—the Swadesh list. Yet few of the lexical items in the Swadesh list appear in the preserved texts. Without complete Swadesh lists for each dialect, lexical comparison becomes inexact. Although a lexical analysis may be used in the future, with the discovery of additional texts, it is not feasible at present.

While the first goal of this study is the presentation of distinctive dialect features in first-millennium NWS, the second is the classification of the extant dialects on the basis of these features. The focus shifts from the distribution of features themselves to the composition of the individual dialects. The features will be analyzed in order to produce a classificatory scheme based on the totality of linguistic features present. Like Harris and Rabin, then, this study seeks to produce a linguistic classification based upon an analysis of significant diagnostic linguistic features. The result is an organic classificatory scheme of NWS dialects in Syria-Palestine in the early first millennium B.C.E.

In this study, "Syria-Palestine" is used in its widest sense. It includes not only ancient Israel (Palestine) and the Aramean states

(Syria), but also the Transjordanian states of Ammon, Moab, and Edom, the coastal city-states of Phoenicia, as well as the polyglottal communities on the northern periphery, as for example Karatepe (Syria-Anatolia) and Arslan Tash (Syria-Mesopotamia). "Syria-Palestine" designates all areas west and north of the Syrian desert in which a Northwest Semitic dialect was spoken.

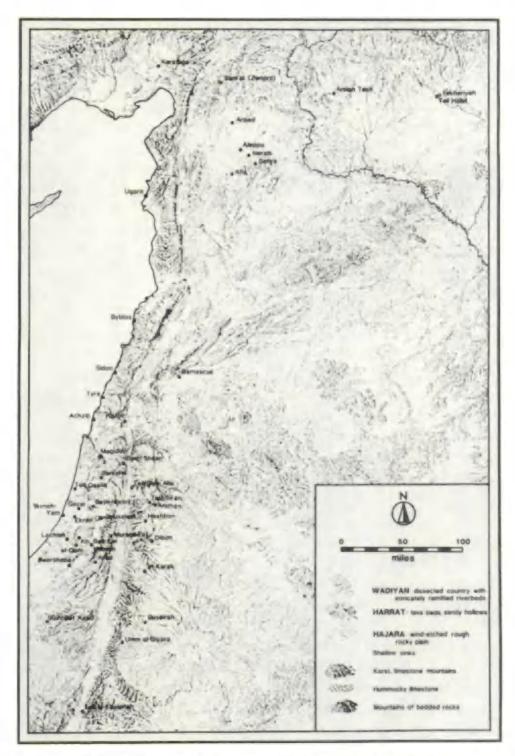
In this sense, Syria-Palestine was a geographical unit.⁵³ It was set within the confines of the Mediterranean Sea (west), the desert (east and south) and the northern mountain ranges. Yet the area was not physically homogeneous. Mountains, rivers, valleys, deserts, forests, and other physical features divided Syria-Palestine into numerous geographical subunits. Within a short distance, the topography could vary considerably. In general, the terrain is rough and dry.

The topography of Syria-Palestine did not promote easy communication. The land itself was composed of small geographical subunits disconnected from other subunits; its effect was to isolate instead of to facilitate communication. People tended not to move about freely but stayed in their own region. Communication tended to be local.⁵⁴

Topography also contributed to the appearance of independent local governments throughout Syria-Palestine. In pre-Davidic times, the area was characterized by numerous, city-state, political systems governed by local chiefs. In the Aramean and Phoenician city-states, Edom, and Israel, government was local and independent. Centralization, and national unity, developed somewhat later in certain parts of the region, notably in Jerusalem. The overall picture of Syro-Palestinian government is political segmentation.⁵⁵

Trade routes served to counterbalance this tendency to fragmentation. Two principal trade routes cut through the area longitudinally, and a series of lesser routes bridged the eastern and western extremes. The *Via Maris* connected Phoenicia, Israel, and Judah through its various branches. The King's Highway traversed Transjordan from Damascus, through Ammon and Moab, to Edom. Other routes ran between larger cities in the interior and provided a complex network of trade and communication.

The western seaports, the eastern trade stations, and all other points on the edge of these routes were extremely important in the linguistic development of Syria-Palestine. Since these areas lay on the periphery, their inhabitants communicated with foreigners, ex-



MAP 1: Map of Syria-Palestine (adopted from Erwin Raisz' Landform Map of the Near East).

changed both commodities and ideas, and served not only as commercial centers but as cultural centers as well. Through travel and trade along these routes, new ideas and ways were brought to the interior. In this way, the obstacles of the topography and polity were partially overcome. Although communication was essentially local, new forms of speech gradually filtered through the land as a result of these traveling traders.

« » « »

Dialect geography is usually concerned with the recording and mapping of current speech patterns. Dialect geographers are able to talk to their informants, elicit a number of responses, and record the different responses from each speaker. The informants themselves are carefully selected. They should be native to the area examined without having traveled a great deal, they should have been schooled in their own communities, and they should speak the dialect of their particular community. In eliciting responses, the dialect geographer tries to engage the informant in a natural, unselfconscious speech; he wants to capture the everyday, common speech pattern.

Similarly, the choice of communities examined is important. A variety of community types ensures a variety of informants. 60 Native speech patterns are best seen in long-settled, nonurban, sedentary communities; the absence of newcomers guards against serious external linguistic influence, while the sedentary nature of the community itself keeps speech patterns native and internal. A community may be located in a variety of places—for example in the hills or on a plain—which will likewise affect settlement and speech patterns. Of course, social structure within each community has its effect on speech patterns as well. 61

The procedure in studying urban dialectology is more unsure.⁶² The representativeness of the informants of native speech patterns becomes uncertain because of the size and complexity of the community. The "normal" speech of the larger communities is difficult to capture; socially, culturally, and economically stratified societies produce a variety of speech patterns. Because of the diversity of informants, many factors complicate a study of dialect geography in urban areas.

The method of gaining linguistic information must be modified when treating an ancient period. 63 Informants cannot be questioned. Communities and native speakers cannot be selected firsthand for investigation. It may be impossible to isolate nonlinguistic factors affecting speech habits, as for example class and occupation. In other words, the linguistic investigator is largely dependent upon the preserved sources.

These sources are written. Linguistic information, then, is gained through the intermediary of the written language. Phonetic differences in speech, exact phonetic realizations of phonemes, and regional language variation must be filtered through the camouflage of the written language.⁶⁴ Although the written and spoken languages were not necessarily different,⁶⁵ the conventional practices of orthography did tend to obscure individual linguistic differences among speakers.⁶⁶ The written language, then, had a leveling effect.

The texts themselves are not consistent. There are royal inscriptions, commemorative and funerary inscriptions, graffiti, letters, and other kinds of documents, each written for a different purpose and by people of different backgrounds and classes. ⁶⁷ The representativeness of such texts, vis-à-vis the entire population, is uncertain. Further, since some texts are literary and designed to be preserved into future generations, individual linguistic differences may have been suppressed. The requirements of the standard literary language can, in many cases, have superseded the speech form of the speaker. ⁶⁸ Many dialectal differences, then, cannot be recovered.

Further, the dates of the texts vary considerably. The Gezer Calendar is dated to the tenth century B.C.E., and the Old Byblian inscriptions are roughly contemporary. The Mesha inscription is mid-ninth century. The Hadad and Panammu inscriptions date from a century later. And the Lachish letters are sixth-century documents. These texts, then, are not contemporary in the strictest sense.

The scribal intermediary also complicates the recovery of linguistic data. Since scribes were school-trained, they wrote in the literary, educated language of the elite, not that of the common individual. Further, a scribe may have written texts in his native tongue as well as that of another; for example, the "Aramaic" scribal practices in the Arslan Tash Phoenician texts suggest that the scribe was not Phoenician but Aramean. 69 Scribes were also imported from the outside to write royal inscriptions and other documents. 70 Thus

the scribe brings new problems to the use of the epigraphic material for dialectological study. The possible nonrepresentativeness of the inscriptions, then, is a warning against attaching too much importance to each document.

Native speech patterns may be difficult to recover on the basis of the extant texts. In several communities, at least two different dialects may have been spoken concurrently. For example, both Aramaic texts and texts of another, unidentified dialect were found in Deir Alla. Aramaic and Phoenician texts were found in Arslan Tash. Akkadian and Aramaic texts appeared in Tell Fekheriyeh. Karatepe shows Phoenician and Hittite texts. And Sam'al witnesses texts in Phoenician, Aramaic, and the local Samalian dialect. It is unclear, then, whether native speakers were multilingual or whether only the scribes were versed in different speech forms.

Transplanted languages also present difficulties to linguistic analysis. The degree to which the transplanted language represents the speech form of the homeland and the degree to which it has changed in its new environment are immediate problems. For example, commercial interests brought the Phoenicians far afield to areas where no Semitic language was spoken. The Phoenician of Karatepe represents such a transplantation; the Phoenician language had been carried to far-off Anatolia. Ironically, in the case of Phoenician, transplantations constitute the largest bulk of standard Phoenician linguistic data.

The difficulties in evaluating the linguistic material of first-millennium Syria-Palestine are unquestionable. In order to obviate some of these difficulties, it is best to assemble NWS linguistic evidence from all extant texts. Although the texts are unevenly distributed throughout the area, they provide the greatest clue to speech patterns. It is impossible to conduct a random sample⁷⁴ or a selective, systematic survey⁷⁵ on the basis of the present data base, since the texts are relatively few. Within these limitations, only a complete assembly of texts can provide the basis for a dialect map of Syria-Palestine.

The inscriptions themselves provide the largest, and most valuable, data base for a study of Syro-Palestinian dialect geography in the first millennium B.C.E. Since the provenience and date of the texts are known for the most part, they can be used as evidence of a particular community's speech form. Thus inscriptions are the primary linguistic source in this study. If, however, direct evidence for a particular linguistic feature is missing from epigraphic sources, other material must be consulted. Personal names may reflect native speech patterns and therefore may be helpful in dialectal study. For example, Hallo and Tadmor⁷⁶ have noted "the earliest evidence for the sound-shift â > ô" in the personal name "DUMU-ḥa-nu-ta; the element ḥa-nu-ta, ['anōt], 77 is a doublet of *'anāt. Bauer' has made a synthetic study of Hebrew personal names in order to show the different phonological, morphological, and lexical influences they reflect. And Rabin has shown that biblical personal names conform to the Barth-Ginsberg law. Personal names, then, may fill the gap when epigraphic material yields no linguistic information.

Where no contemporary linguistic data are available, later linguistic material may be consulted. For example, if a certain feature does not appear in the extant Phoenician texts of 1000–586 B.C.E., the evidence of Punic may be used as indirect testimony of the feature in the older linguistic phase. Similarly, if a feature does not appear in the extant epigraphic Hebrew texts, Masoretic Hebrew may be adduced as evidence. But, in this case, Masoretic Hebrew is used with caution. It does not represent one Hebrew dialect but probably a mixture of dialect traditions. Further, some regular features of Masoretic Hebrew, such as anaptyxis in *qVtl- nouns, are demonstrably late; the projection of late features into the early first millennium B.C.E. would be a false inference. Thus biblical Hebrew evidence can be used only when it is apparently representative of the earlier language as well.

Scholars have also employed place names in linguistic analysis. The changes reflected in a place name may reflect changes in the native, spoken language. Gelb, 82 for example, distinguished second-millennium Canaanite (Palestine and Phoenicia) from Amorite (Amurru, Alalakh, and Ugarit) on the basis of place names ending in $-\bar{u}na/i$ vs. $-\bar{a}nu$; according to Gelb, the \bar{u} of $-\bar{u}na/i$ reflects the Canaanite correspondence * \hat{a} :[\hat{o}]. Friedrich⁸³ claimed that the vowel shift * \hat{a} > [\hat{o}] reached the Phoenician coast only by the eighth century, pointing to the place names Ba^2 -li-ra-si (Shalmaneser III, 858–824) and Ba^2 -li-sa-pu-na (Tiglath-Pileser III, 747–727) as proof.

Yet place names do not necessarily reflect current speech patterns. Because a place name may be much older than contemporary speech, it may reflect an older language phase.⁸⁴ And, the interpretation of individual names often differs among scholars, 85 making the linguistic analysis of a name difficult.

Not all linguistic sources are equally reliable. For the purpose of Syro-Palestinian dialect geography, inscriptions offer the most secure linguistic material. They also represent the most complete collection of linguistic material preserved from this early period. Personal names can fill in needed gaps in the epigraphic data, as can the evidence from later sources. Later sources, of course, can provide only the basis for linguistic inferences in previous history. Finally, place names are used sparingly, only in the absence of more reliable evidence. For the present study, linguistic data must be collected from all available sources and used discriminately.

« » « »

What follows is a list of linguistic features which differentiate the first-millennium Northwest Semitic dialects. Texts within each dialect are grouped under their conventional dialect names: Phoenician, Aramaic, Samalian. And Ammonite, Deir Alla, Moabite, Edomite, and Hebrew. This procedure follows traditional classification of the texts and facilitates an easy comparison of dialects. Wherever possible, dialectal subgroupings are isolated, as for example Byblian Phoenician when it differs from standard Phoenician, the speech form of most Phoenician-speaking communities. Frequently, the Old Aramaic texts differ from one another on particular linguistic features; in these cases, the dialectal differences within each dialect are fully treated. Dialect headings are used for convenient reference and are not prejudicial to the final classification scheme in Chapter 5.

The dialects are presented in a certain geographical order. Beginning on the western coast (Phoenicia), the route proceeds north (Aram; Sam'al), through Transjordan and back toward Palestine (Israel and Judah). Unless otherwise noted, Phoenician, Aramaic, Samalian, Moabite, and Hebrew texts are cited according to the readings of *KAI*. Wherever necessary, however, the readings of *KAI* have been corrected according to more recent studies. Well-known texts in those dialects not included in *KAI* are cited according to the *editio princeps* and any later studies. Repair Alla, 900 Deir A

and Edomite⁹¹ texts are also cited according to the *editio princeps*. Bibliographic citations are provided for less well-known texts.

Notes to Chapter 1

- 1. Leonard Bloomfield, Language (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1933), p. 343; André Martinet, "Diffusion of Language and Structural Linguistics," Romance Philology 6 (1952): 5; and Joseph H. Greenberg, Essays in Linguistics (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 54.
- On the problem of dating the fall of Jerusalem, see David N. Freedman, "The Babylonian Chronicle," BA 19 (1956): 55 n. 20; and B. Oded, "Judah and the Exile," in Israelite and Judaean History, ed. John H. Hayes and J. Maxwell Miller (Philadelphia: The Westminster Press, 1977), pp. 474–475.
- 3. Although a comprehensive history of Syria-Palestine during the first millennium B.C.E. remains to be written, the history of several individual states has appeared. For Aram, see André Dupont-Sommer, Les araméens, L'orient ancien illustré, vol. 2 (Paris: A. Maisonneuve, 1949), and Abraham Malamat, "The Aramaeans," in Peoples of Old Testament Times, ed. D. J. Wiseman (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1973), pp. 134-155. For Sam'al, see Benno Landsberger, Sam'al. Studien zur Entdeckung der Ruinenstaette Karatepe. Veröffentlichungen der türkischen historischen Gesellschaft, Series 7, no. 16 (Ankara: Türkische historische Gesellschaft, 1948). For Ammon, see George M. Landes, "Ammon, Ammonites," in The Interpreter's Dictionary of the Bible, 4 vols. (Nashville/New York: Abingdon Press, 1962), 1:108-114, and B. Oded, "Ammon, Ammonites," in Encyclopaedia Judaica, 16 vols. (Jerusalem: Keter Publishing House, 1971-1972), 2:853-859. For Edom, see Manfred Weippert, "Edom. Studien und Materialien zur Geschichte der Edomiter auf Grund schriftlicher und archäologischer Quellen" (Inaugural-Dissertation, Eberhard-Karl-Universität, 1971). And for Israel, see the standard histories.
- 4. For the term, see Edward Sapir, "Dialect," in *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, ed. Edwin R. A. Seligman and Alvin Johnson, 15 vols. (New York: Macmillan Co., 1930–1935), 5:123–126. In this study, "speech form" and "dialect" (see recently I. M. Diakonoff, "Earliest Semites in Asia. Agriculture and Animal Husbandry According to Linguistic Data [VIIIth–IVth Millennia B.c.]," *AoF* 8 [1981]: 24 n. 1) are interchangeable.
- 5. William F. Albright, "The Northwest-Semitic Tongues before 1000 B.C.," in Atti del XIX congresso internazionale degli orientalisti . . . 1935 (Rome: Tipografia del Senato, G. Bardi, 1938), p. 448. Cf. idem, "Recent Progress in North-Canaanite Research," BASOR 70 (1938): 21.
- 6. Albright used "North-Canaanite" as a synonym for Ugaritic already in his first two publications on Ugaritic. See "New Light on Early Canaanite Language and Literature," BASOR 46 (1932): 17, 19, and "The North-Canaanite Epic of 'Al'êyân Ba'al and Môt," JPOS 12 (1932): 185.

- 7. Zellig S. Harris, A Grammar of the Phoenician Language, American Oriental Series, vol. 8 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1936), p. 7 with n. 31.
- 8. Stanislav Segert, A Grammar of Phoenician and Punic (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1976), §§12.36, 12.38.
- 9. For example, J. Hoftijzer, "Interpretation and Grammar," in *Aramaic Texts from Deir 'Alla*, ed. J. Hoftijzer and G. van der Kooij. Documenta et Monumenta Orientis Antiqui, vol. 19 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1976), p. 300; and Joseph A. Fitzmyer, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., *Aramaic Texts*]," *CBQ* 40 (1978): 94.
- Jonas C. Greenfield, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," JSS 25 (1980): 251.
- 11. Jo Ann Carlton (Hackett), "Studies in the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Allā" (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1980), pp. 186–189; and idem, "The Dialect of the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Alla," Or 53 (1984): 64.
- 12. Alexander Rofé, *The Book of Balaam (Numbers 22:2-24:25)*, Jerusalem Biblical Studies, vol. 1 (Jerusalem: Simor, 1979), pp. 69-70 (in Hebrew).
- 13. Joseph Naveh, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," IEJ 29 (1979): 136 (one alternative).
- 14. So, for example, Greenfield, "Dialect Traits in Early Aramaic," Leshonenu 32 (1968): 363, 361 (in Hebrew); idem, "The Dialects of Early Aramaic," JNES 37 (1978): 94; and Fitzmyer, "The Phases of the Aramaic Language," in idem, A Wandering Aramean: Collected Aramaic Essays, SBLMS, vol. 25 (Missoula: Scholars Press, 1979), p. 77 n. 30.
- 15. So, for example, Johannes Friedrich, *PPG*, p. 162; idem, "Zur Stellung des Jaudischen in der nordwestsemitischen Sprachgeschichte," in *Studies in Honor of Benno Landsberger* . . . 1965, Assyriological Studies, vol. 16 (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965), p. 429; and Giovanni Garbini, "Studi aramaici—1–2," *AION* 19 (1969): 7.
- 16. Frank M. Cross, "Ammonite Ostraca from Heshbon: Heshbon Ostraca IV-VIII," AUSS 13 (1975): 17-18.
- 17. Garbini, Le lingue semitiche. Studi di storia linguistica (Naples: Istituto orientale di Napoli, 1972), p. 107 (one alternative).
- 18. Isidore Dyen, "[Review of Dahl, Malgache et maanjan]," Lg. 29 (1953): 580.
- 19. L. Gauchat, "Gibt es Mundartgrenzen?" Archiv für das Studium der neueren Sprachen und Literaturen 111 (1903): 378.
- 20. Harris, Development of the Canaanite Dialects, American Oriental Series, vol. 16 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1939), p. 98 n. 8; and William G. Moulton, "Structural Dialectology," Lg. 44 (1968): 456.
- 21. Gotthelf Bergsträsser, "In Sachen meines 'Sprachatlas," ZS 1 (1922): 220–221; Hans Kurath, Studies in Area Linguistics (Bloomington/London: Indiana University Press, 1972), p. 75; and J. K. Chambers and Peter Trudgill, Dialectology (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press,

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 - 22. Dyen (private communication).
 - 23. Cf. Harris, Development, p. 16.
 - 24. Bloomfield, Language, p. 321.
 - 25. Ibid., p. 325.
 - 26. Chambers and Trudgill, Dialectology, p. 24.
- 27. Ibid., p. 112; and Lawrence M. Davis, "Dialectology and Linguistics," Orbis 26 (1977): 25.
 - 28. Bloomfield, Language, p. 323.
 - 29. See, for example, Harris, Development, p. 1.
- 30. See Charles F. Hockett, A Course in Modern Linguistics (New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., 1958), p. 481; and Raimo Anttila, An Introduction to Historical and Comparative Linguistics (New York/London: Macmillan Publishing Co./Collier Macmillan Publishers, 1972), p. 294.
- 31. Pavle Ivić, "On the Structure of Dialectal Differentiation," Word 18 (1962): 43; and Anttila, Introduction, p. 298.
- 32. Albright never published his dialect maps of third-millennium Palestine, mentioned in "Notes on Early Hebrew and Aramaic Epigraphy," JPOS 6 (1926): 82 n. 15.
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- 34. Bergsträsser, "Sprachatlas von Syrien und Palästina," ZDPV 38 (1915): 169–222; cf. idem, ZS 1 (1922): 218–226.
 - 35. See especially his methodological statement, ZS 1 (1922): 220-221.
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 - 37. Harris, Development.
 - 38. Bergsträsser, ZS 1 (1922): 220.
- 39. Although Harris included the Zkr inscription in his study of Canaanite (see *Development*, p. 18), the language of this text is generally classified as Old Aramaic.
- 40. Ibid., p. 98. Cf. H. L. Ginsberg, "[Review of Harris, Development]," JBL 59 (1940): 550.
 - 41. Harris. Development, p. 98.
- 42. Chaim Rabin, "The Origin of the Subdivisions of Semitic," in Hebrew and Semitic Studies Presented to Godfrey Rolles Driver, ed. D. Winton Thomas and W. D. McHardy (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1963), pp. 104-115.
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 - 47. See n. 8 above.
- 48. Diakonoff, Semito-Hamitic Languages. An Essay in Classification (Moscow: Nauka Publishing House, 1965), pp. 11–12.
 - 49. Garbini, Le lingue, pp. 15, 36.
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- 52. Morris Swadesh, "Lexico-statistic Dating of Prehistoric Ethnic Contacts with Special Reference to North American Indians and Eskimos," *PAPhS* 96 (1952): 452–463; and idem, "Towards Greater Accuracy in Lexicostatistic Dating," *IJAL* 21 (1955): 121–137.
- 53. Moscati, *The Semites*, p. 76; and Masao Sekine, "The Subdivisions of the North-West Semitic Languages," *JSS* 18 (1973): 206. Cf. Albright, "Some Canaanite-Phoenician Sources of Hebrew Wisdom," in *Wisdom in Israel and in the Ancient Near East*, ed. M. Noth and D. Winton Thomas. VTS, vol. 3 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1955), p. 2. For the following discussion, see Yohanan Aharoni, *The Land of the Bible: A Historical Geography*, trans. A. F. Rainey. 2nd ed. (Philadelphia: The Westminster Press, 1979).
- 54. Harris, *Development*, p. 14; and Blau, "Some Difficulties in the Reconstruction of 'Proto-Hebrew' and 'Proto-Canaanite,'" in *In Memoriam Paul Kahle*, ed. Matthew Black and Georg Fohrer. BZAW, vol. 103 (Berlin: A. Töpelmann, 1968), p. 41.
 - 55. Harris, Development, pp. 13-14.
 - 56. Kurath, Studies, p. 95.
- See the discussion in Chambers and Trudgill, Dialectology, pp. 15-23.
- 58. Kurath, Handbook of the Linguistic Geography of New England, 2nd ed. (New York: AMS Press, 1973), pp. 41, 49; idem, Studies, p. 12; and Chambers and Trudgill, Dialectology, pp. 33–35.
 - 59. Kurath, *Handbook*, pp. 45, 48.
- 60. See ibid., pp. 39, 49; idem, *Studies*, pp. 10-11; and Hockett, *Course*, p. 483.
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 - 64. Bloomfield, Language, pp. 293, 294, 296; Ernst Pulgram, "The Nature and Use of Proto-Languages," Lingua 10 (1961): 24; and Anttila, Introduction, p. 43.
- 65. Cf. the recent study by Gary Rendsburg, "Evidence for a Spoken Hebrew in Biblical Times" (Ph.D. dissertation, New York University, 1980).
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- 70. See, for example, Albrecht Goetze, "Cilicians," JCS 16 (1962): 53-54 n. 45.
- 71. Naveh, *IEJ* 29 (1979): 136; P. Kyle McCarter, "The Balaam Texts from Deir 'Allā: The First Combination," *BASOR* 239 (1980): 50; and Hackett, *Or* 53 (1984): 58.
- 72. Kurath, Studies, pp. 104-105, with modern examples on pp. 107-121.
- 73. Irene J. Winter, "On the Problems of Karatepe: The Reliefs and Their Context," AS 29 (1979): 136-140, esp. pp. 138-139.
 - 74. Harris, Development, p. 17.
 - 75. Cf. Kurath, Studies, pp. 1-2.
- William W. Hallo and Hayim Tadmor, "A Lawsuit from Hazor,"
 IEJ 27 (1977): 4–5.
- Square brackets indicate the reconstructed pronunciation of words and phonemes.
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- 79. Rabin, "Archaic Vocalisation in Some Biblical Hebrew Names," JJS 1 (1948): 22-26.
- 80. See, for example, Harris, *Development*. p. 23; and Alexander Sperber, *A Historical Grammar of Biblical Hebrew* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1966).
 - 81. Harris, Development, p. 80.

- 82. 1. J. Gelb, "The Early History of the West Semitic Peoples," *JCS* 15 (1961): 42.
- 83. Friedrich, "Kanaanäisch und Westsemitisch," Scientia 84 (1949); 222, 223 n. 1.
- 84. Bloomfield, Language, pp. 339–340; and Kurath, Studies, p. 59. See also Wolfram von Soden, "Zur Einteilung der semitischen Sprachen," WZKM 56 (1960): 180.
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- 86. For the use of Samalian as a dialect name, see Greenfield, *Leshonenu* 32 (1968): 359 n. 6; and Helga and Manfred Weippert, "Die 'Bileam'-Inschrift von *Tell Der 'Alla*," *ZDPV* 98 (1982): 85 n. 31.
- 87. Edomite texts are recognized by find-spot, the appearance of *Qôs* personal names, and to a lesser extent by the script. On the latter, see Naveh, "The Scripts of Two Ostraca from Elath," *BASOR* 183 (1966): 27–30.
- 88. PHOENICIAN: For the second Arslan Tash inscription, see André Caquot and R. du Mesnil du Buisson, "La seconde tablette ou 'petite amulette' d'Arslan-Tash," *Syria* 48 (1971): 396, 403, and 392 fig. 1, 393 fig. 2A; and Röllig, *NESE* 2 (1974): 29.
- For "Byblos 13," see Jean Starcky, "Une inscription phénicienne de Byblos," MUSJ 45 (1969): 257–273; and Cross, "A Recently Published Phoenician Inscription of the Persian Period from Byblos," IEJ 29 (1979): 40–44.
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89. The Amman Citadel inscription was published by Siegfried H. Horn, "The Amman Citadel Inscription," *ADAJ* 12–13 (1967–1968): 81–83; idem, "The Amman Citadel Inscription," *BASOR* 193 (1969): 2–13. See

also William J. Fulco, "The 'Amman Citadel Inscription: A New Collation," BASOR 230 (1978): 39–43.

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For the Siran bottle inscription, see Fawzi Zayadine and Henry O. Thompson, "The Ammonite Inscription from Tell Siran," *Berytus* 22 (1973): 115–140; and idem, "The Tell Siran Inscription," *BASOR* 212 (1973): 5–11. See also Cross, "Notes on the Ammonite Inscription from Tell Sīrān," *BASOR* 212 (1973): 12–15.

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- 90. Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts, pp. 173-178, 267, and plates 1-15. 19b, 20-23. See also Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 40-41. The lineation and reconstruction of Combination I follow André Caquot and André Lemaire, "Les textes araméens de Deir 'Alla," Syria 54 (1977): 193-194.
 - 91. Complete references are given when individual texts are cited.



PHONOLOGY

1. The correspondences of *d.

PHOENICIAN: צ, as in ארץ "land, country" (Karatepe A I 4.9.18, etc.) and איץ "to go out" (Arsl.T. 1:26, 2:3). Although there is no evidence for the correspondence of *q in Old Byblian, the appearance of ארץ in Yehawmilk 10 suggests that צ represented *q in Byblian as well. Since *q had merged with *s in Ugaritic, the phoneme *d was lost throughout the Canaanite dialects at a very early date.

ARAMAIC: p, as in (א) ארק "(the) land, country" (Zkr B 26; Br-Rkb 1:4, 2:2; Sf. I A 26.28; Fekh. 2; etc.), רקה "to appease" (Sf. III 6, etc.), מרק "sickness" (Fekh. 9), and ידי "to flee" (Sf. III 4.19.19/20). Kutscher³ also cited the personal name Ra-qi-a-nu4 and its variant Ra-hi-a-nu (ANET3, p. 283). The exact phonetic value of Old Aramaic p < *qi is not known.

The only exception to this systematic correspondence is ייgreen grass'' (Sf. I A 28).

SAMALIAN: אָרק as in ארך "land, country" (H 5; P 5, etc.), מוקא "rising (sun)" (P 13.14), and רקה "to delight in" (H 18.22).

The only exception to the systematic correspondence of *d:p is צרי "my enemies" (H 30), cognate to Arabic [darra] "to harm, injure." The other word adduced as an exception to this correspondence, שמרג "to fall sick" (P 16), from the root *mrd.9 is doubtful for two reasons: (1) the causative in Samalian is -ה not -ש. The morpheme itself, or the entire word, would have been borrowed; and (2) there is no parallel to the alleged correspondence *d:x in either Samalian or Aramaic. The parallel cited by Dion, 10 following Kutscher 11 - Syriac and "to laugh" - does not prove the point, since גחך, like other Semitic verbs of laughing, 12 is onomatopoetic.

AMMONITE: צ, as in צאן "sheep" (Hesh. Ost. 4:2.7.10). 13

DEIR ALLA: אָ, as in קרק "to flee" (1 15). 14 Whatever the pronunciation of the Deir Alla p was, 15 the representation of *d by p strongly aligns the Deir Alla dialect with Old Aramaic and Samalian.

MOABITE: צ, as in ארץ "land, country" (Mesha 5/6, etc.) and צאן "sheep" (Mesha 31).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

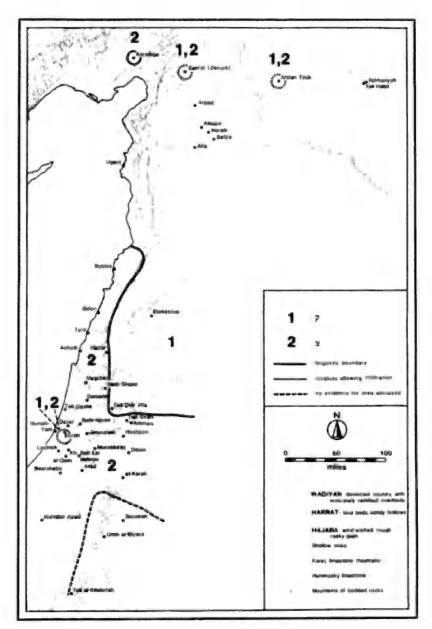
HEBREW: Y, as in yrra "washing" (Sam. Ost. 19:3, 54:2/3, etc.), "spring" (Shiloah 5), and אחר "vinegar" (Arad 2:7).

The Northwest Semitic dialects spoken between 1000 and 586 B.C.E. exhibit two graphic correspondences of *d. In Phoenician, Ammonite, Moabite, and Hebrew, *d is represented by y. Old Aramaic, Samalian, and the Deir Alla dialect use a different grapheme, p, to represent *d. This graphic representation suggests that *d had merged with a sibilant in Phoenician, Ammonite, Moabite, and Hebrew. In Old Aramaic, Samalian, and the Deir Alla dialect, *d had merged with a uvular. Further refinement of this twofold dialectal distinction along phonetic lines is not possible at present.

2. The correspondences of *d.

PHOENICIAN: 1 [z], as for example the Byblian relative -1 (Ahirom 1; Yehimilk 1, etc.) and the demonstrative pronoun it "this" (Ahirom 2; Ahirom Graff. 3, etc.), and nat "(to) sacrifice" (Karatepe A II 19, C IV 2.4, etc.). The original phoneme *d was lost in the earliest Phoenician texts and had merged with *z.16

ARAMAIC: t [d], as in אחד "to grasp, seize" (Br-Rkb 1:11; Fekh. 19), זחל "to fear" (Zkr A 13; Sf. II C 6), the relative יו (passim),



MAP 2: The correspondences of *q.

etc. 17 t in the Old Aramaic texts was bivalent, corresponding to both *d and *z. The double pronunciation of Old Aramaic t is inferred from the representation of *d by both t and 7 in Imperial Aramaic texts. The shift of * $d > \neg$ could not have occurred had *d not remained an independent phone(me) in this early period. 19 There is also the possibility, however, that *d had merged with [z]/*z in Old Aramaic and that the Imperial Aramaic t < *d originated in another dialect strain.

SAMALIAN: t, as, for example, in the "to grasp, seize" (H 3, etc.; P 11), זהב "gold" (P 11), the relative particle (י) (H 1.3.4.22, etc.), etc.²⁰ The phonetic value of t < *d is uncertain; the phoneme *d may have been independent (as in Old Aramaic)²¹ or may have merged with [z] (as in Phoenician dialects).22 Also, the possibility of foreign influence on the phonetic realization of t < *d cannot be excluded.

AMMONITE: r [(?)], as in the PN ירחעזר (Amman Statue) and אלעזר (seal of נדבאל).²³

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. 24 The relative/genitive particle v (Clay Text 1) < *d is probably Aramaic.²⁵ The examples of *d cited by Hoftijzer, 26 נייח (Vd 2) and מחוי (II 8), are ambiguous since the etymology is uncertain in each case.²⁸

MOABITE: t [(?)], as in זאת "this" (fem. sing.) (Mesha 3) and זאת "to capture" (Mesha 11.14, etc.). The phonetic value of $\tau < *d$ is unknown. Cf. Samalian above.

EDOMITE: ז [(?)], in the PN בעזראל.29 The phonetic value of Edomite t is uncertain.30

HEBREW: r [z], as in the PN זהב (Sam. Ost. 2:5), זהב "gold" (Silwan B 1), it "this" (masc. sing.) (Lach. 6:2; Yavneh-Yam 1:9; Arad 13:2), etc.

According to the available evidence, the correspondences of *d divide the NWS dialects into two parts. Old Aramaic, in all probability, preserved an independent phoneme, *d. In Phoenician and Hebrew, *d was lost and had merged with *z. In each of the remaining dialects, it is unknown whether *d was independent or had been lost to another phoneme.

Although Phoenician and Hebrew jointly lost *d to *z, the merger may have occurred independently in each dialect.³¹ Since *d > [z] also occurred in Akkadian and Ethiopic, the loss of *d in Phoenician and Hebrew may not be an exclusively shared innovation

but parallel, independent developments. Alternatively, *d > [z] in NWS may have arisen by mutual contact and linguistic diffusion. The geographical proximity of the NWS dialects exhibiting the merger argues for the second alternative.32

The correspondences of *t. 3.

PHOENICIAN: צ [s], as in חצר "courtyard" (Arsl.T. 1:7).

One possible exception to this correspondence is the place name צר "Tyre" < *tor, transcribed in Greek as Tupos. While some scholars³³ have claimed that the representation of *t by T indicates that *t was still an independent phoneme in Phoenician, the evidence is dubious. Either the representation of *t by T reflects a sole remnant of [t] in an old place name, or T results from foreign influence on the transmission of the place name. 34 In either case, there is no other evidence that *t persisted as an independent phoneme in Phoenician.

ARAMAIC: צ [t], as in ץץ "to run" (Br-Rkb 1:8) and נצר 'to protect" (Sf. 1 B 8, C 15.17; Nerab 1:12.13; Adon 8).35 In the later Imperial Aramaic texts, v becomes the standard representation of *t. 36 Thus, as in the case of *d, the later phases of the Aramaic dialects indicate that the old phoneme had not been lost.

SAMALIAN: Y* [(?)]. The only possible evidence of *t is the PN ברצר (P 1.3.20.20), if it is composed of בר "son" + *tr "rock."³⁷ Although no certain examples of *t occur in the Samalian texts, the phoneme would be represented by y, as in both Aramaic and Phoenician dialects; its phonetic value, however, remains unknown.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: עצה (?)], as in עצה "advice" (II 9) and יעץ "to advise" (II 9). Hoftijzer³⁸ claimed that *t was still an independent phoneme on the basis of the orthographic variation in representing this phoneme. He cited שעש (17) cognate to Arabic ['azuma] "to be vast, powerful '39 and עצם (VIIc 3), from the same root. Yet the new readings of the Balaam text show עטם in 17, not עטם ⁴⁰ There is, then, no orthographic variation in the representation of *t. *t always corresponds to y. Its phonetic value is unknown.

MOABITE: צהרם (?)], as in צהרם "noon" (Mesha 15). In the absence of both transcriptions of Moabite and knowledge of later phonetic developments in this dialect, it is impossible to suggest the phonetic value of Moabite y < *t.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: עצמת (Gezer Cal. 7), עצמת "bones" עצמת "bones" (Silwan B 2), etc. Both biblical and epigraphic texts show that *t and *s have completely merged; there is no trace of an independent phoneme *t.

The resultant dialect map is similar to that of *d. In Phoenician and Hebrew, *t and *s have merged into y; the phoneme *t was lost. In Aramaic dialects, however, this phoneme was preserved. But by the fifth century, *t was becoming obsolete and had merged with v It).

Whether Samalian, Ammonite, Deir Alla, Moabite, and Edomite had an independent phoneme *t, as did Aramaic, or lost it, as did Phoenician and Hebrew, is unclear. The representation of this phoneme by y in these dialects makes any judgment about the phonetic value impossible. Both the Canaanite and Aramaic dialects utilized y to represent different sounds.

The correspondences of *t.

PHOENICIAN: ש [š], as in משפט "judgment" (Ahirom 2), ישב "to sit, dwell" (Karatepe A I II, etc.; Kilamu 14), and שמנה "8" (Arsl.T. 1:17/18). The phoneme *t had already merged with [s] and had been lost by the time of the earliest Phoenician texts.41

Bauer and Leander, 42 however, objected that *t was preserved through late Phoenician times. They noted, in support, that Plutarch explicitly relates the Phoenician pronunciation of "ox"-Hebrew -as θωρ, not as the expected *σωρ. Yet Friedrich⁴³ and Harris⁴⁴ suggested that Plutarch's θωρ does not represent the actual Phoenician pronunciation of "w", but rather the Aramaic pronunciation [tôr]. Thus, there are no exceptions to the complete loss of *t in Phoenician dialects.

ARAMAIC: w[t], in all Aramaic-speaking communities except that of Tell Fekheriyeh. Thus *t is represented as w in Samal (ישב "to sit, dwell" [Br-Rkb 1:5 = Sf. III 7.17] and שלשן "30" [KAI 219:3]), Sfire (שבר "to break" [Sf. I A 38], ש(ו)ב "to return" [Sf. III 6, etc.], and אשר "ewe(s)" [Sf. I A 21.23]), and Aleppo (אשר "place; trace" [Zkr B 15.16 (partially restored) = Sf. I A 5, etc.]). In the recently published Aramaic text from Tell Fekheriyeh, however, *t appears

מסר (e.g., עסר 'riches'' [l. 2], ייסב ''to sit, dwell'' [ll. 5.16], אחדס (a)new'' [l. 11], and ייסב ''ewes'' [l. 20]). As Kaufman has stated, this v does not represent a different phonetic correspondence of $*_L$, but only a different graphic representation. The use of v rather than the standard w in representing [t] may result from the influence of Assyrian, where $*_5$:[s].

The persistence of an independent phoneme [t] is suggested by the spelling of the PN עתרסמך (Sf. I A I, etc.), pronounced ['Attar-] < *'Attar-. Had *t merged with [s], as in Phoenician dialects, the name would have appeared as "עשתרסמך"; 47 cf. biblical Hebrew and Akkadian Istar. This particular form in Sfire could not have arisen had *t/[t] not been an independent phone(me).

For the supposed form ירח in Sf. 1 C 24, see Chapter 3, no. 16a. SAMALIAN: ש [(?)], as in אשר "place" (H 27.27.32), אשר "to sit, dwell" (H 8.15, etc.), etc. 48 The graphic correspondence of *t.w., found in both Phoenician and Aramaic dialects, does not indicate any dialectal affinity. 49 Without transcriptions, Samalian w is dialectally ambiguous.

AMMONITE: ש ((?)), as in דשא "grass" (Hesh. Ost. 4:9) and שתע "to fear" (Cit. 6). 50 The exact phonetic value of w is unknown.

DEIR ALLA: w[(?)], as in (ה) שמלט "there, thither" (II 7.13.14) שמלט "judgment" (II 17), etc. ⁵¹ It is unclear whether the phoneme * \underline{t} was lost, as in Phoenician dialects, or was retained, as in Old Aramaic dialects. Orthographically, Deir Alla $w < \underline{t}$ could be interpreted in either way.

MOABITE: ש ((?)), as in שלשן "30" (Mesha 2), ירש "to occupy" (Mesha 7), and ישב "to sit, dwell" (Mesha 8.8/9, etc.). This grapheme is also phonetically ambiguous, as in Samalian, Ammonite, and the Deir Alla dialect.

EDOMITE: No evidence.52

אשר, (Shiloah 2), אשר "(relative particle)" (Silwan B 1.2; Lach. 2:6, etc.), and אשר "month" (Arad 7:3/4). By the time of the earliest Hebrew text, $*\underline{\imath}$ had already been lost and had merged with $*\underline{s}/[\underline{s}]$. The Hebrew epigraphic texts offer no evidence bearing on Speiser's claim that in one Hebrew dialect, $*\underline{\imath}$ was realized as $[\underline{s}]$.

The merger of \underline{t} and \underline{t} and \underline{t} did not occur simultaneously in Phoenician and Hebrew. At Rather, it occurred some four centuries earlier in Phoenician than in Hebrew. On the basis of this timetable, it is evident that the merging of \underline{t} and \underline{t} began in Phoenician and then

spread into Palestine, finally reaching Hebrew centuries later. Phoenician was therefore the linguistic innovator from which Hebrew received the change.

The correspondences of $*\underline{\imath}$ divide the first-millennium NWS dialects into two groups. Old Aramaic preserved an independent phoneme $*\underline{\imath}$, whereas $*\underline{\imath}$ had merged with $*\underline{\imath}$ in Phoenician and Hebrew. It appears that the change $*\underline{\imath} > [\underline{\imath}]$ gradually diffused through Palestine. The dialectal status of Samalian, Ammonite, Deir Alla, Moabite, and Edomite, in this respect, is unknown.

5. The correspondences of $*\tilde{a}$.

ARAMAIC: *[\acute{a}]. Although there is no direct evidence for the treatment of * \acute{a} in this period, the later Aramaic dialects (biblical Aramaic and Syriac especially) suggest that * \acute{a} remained stable in the early period.⁵⁹

SAMALIAN: *[á], as in the place name Sam-al, Sa-am-al-la; 60 cf. Hebrew שמאול. The Samalian texts themselves, however, offer no direct evidence that *á corresponded to [á].

AMMONITE: [$\dot{\delta}$ (?)]. In all probability, Ammonite underwent the change of * \dot{a} > [$\dot{\delta}$], as seen in one Ammonite PN.⁶² Since, in Phoenician, the change * \dot{a} > [$\dot{\delta}$] was patterned after the older shift * \dot{a} > [$\dot{\delta}$], 63 it can be inferred that, like Phoenician. Ammonite also modified * \dot{a} > [$\dot{\delta}$]. 64 This vocalic change may also be evidenced in the place name 1(3) χ (Ammon) and in the divine name "Milkom."

In Akkadian texts, 65 however, "Ammonites" appears as Amma-na-aia; the correspondence * \hat{a} :[\hat{o}] is absent. Yet this form of the gentilic probably does not reflect actual Ammonite pronunciation

but is rather an Akkadian form. The foreign name was adapted to Akkadian phonetic patterns; 66 in Akkadian * å remained [å]. 67 Thus the evidence suggests that in Ammonite *a; [o].

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: [(?)]. The evidence of Akkadian transcriptions is ambiguous since the Moabite PN Ka-am-mu-su-na-ad-bi (ANET3, p. 287), with apparent *\(\tilde{a}: \[\bar{0} \], contrasts with the PNs Ka-ma-us-hal-taa (ANET3, p. 298) and Sa-la-ma-nu (ANET3, p. 282).68 These names, then, cannot alone serve to posit the correspondence *ā:lol in Moabite.

Blau⁶⁹ used indirect evidence to find the correspondence of *ā in Moabite. According to him, the first person sing, perfect nobears [i] on analogy to the independent pronoun ['anôki]. The final [i] on ['anoki], however, results from the following development: *'anāku (as in Akkadian and Ugaritic) > *'anōkū > (via dissimilation) ['anoki]. Thus Blau hypothesized that [i] of the suffix in-indicates the existence of *a:[o] in Moabite.

Yet the verbal suffix [tī] does not appear only in dialects which exhibit the correspondence $*\hat{a}:[\hat{o}]$. In Amorite, for example, the first person sing, perfect ended in [ti], 70 but *a:[a]. The verbal suffix [tī] in Moabite, then, need not imply the correspondence *a:[o]. Thus it is preferable to revert to the traditional explanation of [i]: [i] in [ti] derives from an analogy with the first person sing, possessive suffix [i].71 The suffix m-, then, does not point to the existence of *ā:lol in Moabite.

EDOMITE: No evidence. Bauer,72 however, suggested that *ā:[ō] in Edomite, on the basis of the personal name עכבור (Gen. 36:38.39) < *-bar and possibly the place name "Edom" itself.

HEBREW: [6], already in the El-Amarna period (e.g., ah-ru-unnu "last" [EA 245:10 (Megiddo)] and sú-ki-ni "agent" [EA 256:9])⁷³ and continuing throughout the biblical texts. There is, however, no direct evidence from the epigraphic texts which suggests that *a:[0].

The correspondence *a:[o] appears in Phoenician dialects, Ammonite, and in Hebrew. In Old Aramaic and probably Samalian, *å was preserved as [a]. The treatment of *å in Moabite, Deir Alla, and in Edomite is unknown.

On the basis of geographical location—adjacent to Hebrew in the South—it is possible that Edomite followed the pattern of Phoenician. Ammonite, and Hebrew and exhibited the correspondence *a:[o]. The situation in Moabite and Deir Alla is more difficult to infer because each dialect shares diagnostic traits with both Phoenician-Hebrew and with Aramaic dialects. Additional evidence is needed to decide this issue.

The correspondences of $*\hat{a}$. 74

PHOENICIAN: [o], whether *a had contracted from *a' tas Pun. nasot "I bore" [Poen. 947] < *naśâtī < *naśâ¹tī) or from the syncope of the semi-vowels y or w (as in the PNs Bu-di-ba-al $[ANET^3, p. 296] < *bad < *badi-yad^{76}$ and Hi-ru-um-mu $[ANET^3,$ p. 283] < *ram < *rawam). 77 Although nasot is attested in the late phase of Phoenician, the form is probably old;⁷⁸ cf. similarly the Greek $\rho\omega < *r\hat{a}\dot{s} < *r\hat{a}\dot{s}$. The correspondence $*\hat{a}:[\hat{0}]$ presumably appeared in both Byblian and standard Phoenician, although the innovating dialect of the correspondence cannot be determined. That the correspondence is systematic, occurring without exception.⁷⁹ suggests that all Phoenician dialects participated in the shift * \hat{a} > lol.

ARAMAIC: *[á], as inferred from the later Aramaic dialects. Even in those Aramaic dialects which exhibit the correspondence *á:[o], *á does not shift to [o]. Old Aramaic, then, probably preserved *å throughout.

SAMALIAN: *[å (?)], as inferred from the preservation of *ā. Since the correspondence *\hat{a}:[\displaystyle{0}] is based upon the prior change *á:[ô],*0 the absence of *á:[ô] in Samalian suggests the absence of *á:[ő] as well.

AMMONITE: [o], in the PN Pu-du-il [Podo-'el] mentioned in the annals of Sennacherib and Essarhaddon.81 If this name is composed of the elements ינדה "to ransom" (third person masc. sing. perfect) + the divine name "El," the transcription Pu-du-il indicates that, as in Phoenician dialects, the vowel * $\hat{a} < *aya$ shifted to [6] (u in the transcription). The development of the name, then, is *Padâ-'il*2 > *Padố-'il > [Padő-'ēl]. 83 Ammonite reflects the correspondence * \hat{a} :1 \hat{o} 1, if * \hat{a} resulted from the syncope of an intervocalic semi-vowel. Whether $*\hat{a} < *a$ also shifted to $[\hat{o}]$, as in Phoenician, is unclear.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Iol. if * \hat{a} was derived from the absorption of ' into the preceding *a in a doubly closed syllable, as in BH ראש "head" and צאן "sheep." אל Otherwise, * $\hat{a} < *\hat{a}$ corresponded to [\hat{a}], as in ל"א gal perfects. 85 When *á resulted from the contraction of *aya and *awa, however, *á became [â], as in the third person masc, singular perfect of final weak verbs in BH. Yet there is no direct evidence for the correspondences of $*\hat{a}$ in the epigraphic texts themselves; such correspondences can only be inferred from other, nonepigraphic sources.

On the basis of the available evidence. Aramaic dialects (and probably Samalian) preserved *\hat{a} as [\hat{a}] in all cases. In Phoenician dialects, * \hat{a} shifted to $|\hat{o}|$ consistently, whether * \hat{a} was derived from the contraction of * \hat{a} > * \hat{a} or from the intervocalic syncopation of * $aya/*awa > *\hat{a}$. Ammonite followed the Phoenician pattern, for the shift $*\hat{a} > [\hat{o}]$ is apparent when $*\hat{a}$ resulted from the syncope of *aya/*awa > * \hat{a} . There is no evidence for the treatment of * \hat{a} ' > * \hat{a} in Ammonite, although this * \hat{a} too probably shifted to [\hat{o}]. At present, then, it is impossible to determine the vowel in Ammonite צאן "sheep" (Hesh. Ost. 4:2.7.10).

Hebrew, at least as attested in the Masoretic text, lay midway between the two linguistic extremes represented by Aramaic (complete preservation of *\hat{a}:[\hat{a}]) and Phoenician dialects (complete transformation of * \hat{a} to [\hat{o}]). When * \hat{a} resulted from the contraction of *a' in a doubly closed syllable, * \hat{a} shifted to [\hat{o}]. When * \hat{a} resulted from the syncopation of an intervocalic y or w, * \hat{a} became [\hat{a}]. The former case follows the Phoenician pattern; the latter follows the Aramaic pattern. The treatment of *\hat{a} in Hebrew thus varied depending upon the development and environment of $*\hat{a}$.

7. The correspondences of $*\dot{a}$.

PHOENICIAN: [6], in nominal formations, as in the PNs Ba-'a-alma-lu-ku (ANET3, p. 296) < *malåk < *malåk, Ia-a-tu-na (Nabunaid 33.5) < *yatán, and Pun. -λαβον "white" < *labán. 86 In Phoenician dialects, * \dot{a} was stress-lengthened to * \dot{a} and thence shifted to [o]: cf. *a:[o] in Phoenician.87

In verbal forms, however, *á was preserved as [á], as, for example, in the PNs Mil-ki-a-ša-pa (ANET³, p. 291 [Byblos])⁸⁸ and Ilu-ya-ta-a-nu (ABL 1112:8). While these forms may indicate a general dialectal variant to the correspondence *á:[ô], 89 another, more specific explanation is available. The evidence conforms to that of BH: tonic lengthening occurs in nouns (incl. PNs) but not in verbs. 90 Those forms in Phoenician with [6] were treated as nouns, those with [a] were treated as verbs.

ARAMAIC: *[á], as inferred from the later Aramaic dialects. 91

SAMALIAN: *[á (?)], although evidence is lacking.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: [*a], if the evidence of the place name "Moab," Akk. $Mu/a^2a-b(a)$ (ANET³, pp. 282, 287, etc.) is to be normalized [Mo'ab]. 92 Whether *á was stress-lengthened, as in Phoenician and Hebrew, is unknown.

EDOMITE: [a], as in the PNs [Ba'al-hanan] (Gen. 36:38, etc.) and Oauš-malaku (ANET³, p. 282). The quantity of the vowel, however, is unknown.

HEBREW: As inferred from the Masoretic vocalization, *á in nouns was stress-lengthened, whereas in verbs it remained [á].93 Although there is no evidence for the quantity of this vowel in the epigraphic texts, the consistency with which BH treats nominal vs. verbal *á suggests that the Masoretic rules were operative in the epigraphic texts as well.

The evidence of those NWS dialects that show the correspondence of *á suggests an initial twofold division among the dialects. In Phoenician and Hebrew, *á was stress-lengthened to [a] in nominal forms only. In Aramaic, and probably also in Samalian, *á was preserved as [á] under all circumstances, whereas in Phoenician and Hebrew it was preserved as [á] only in verbal forms. Thus Phoenician and Hebrew constitute a single dialect group, which exhibits stress-lengthening, as opposed to the other first-millennium NWS dialects which attest to the correspondence *\(\alpha\):[\(\alpha\)]. The dialectal status of Ammonite, the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Edomite, in this respect, is unknown.

Within the Phoenician-Hebrew group, Phoenician shows a further phonological development. Whereas *á in Hebrew nominal forms was only stress-lengthened to $[\hat{a}]$, in Phoenician * \hat{a} was stresslengthened to $*\hat{a}$ and was then treated as an originally long, accented * \hat{a} , becoming [\hat{o}]. Hebrew distinguished * \hat{a} from * \hat{a} and * \hat{a} ; the first always shifted to [o], the second shifting only when *\hat{a} resulted from

*a in a doubly closed syllable, and the third retaining its quality but lengthening to [a] in nouns but remaining [a] in verbs. In Phoenician, however, all three vowels became [o], with the exception of verbal *á:[á]. The phonological correspondence *á:[ő] in Phoenician therefore extended to nearly all a-vowels under the accent.

The consistency with which Phoenician applied the correspondence $*\mathring{a}$: [\mathring{o}] suggests that the change began in this dialect. From this point, the change spread to different parts of Syria-Palestine. *a:[o] reached Ammonite and Hebrew: *a:[o] reached Ammonite. and nominal *á:[a] reached only Hebrew. The further modification of * $\hat{a} > *\hat{a} > |\hat{0}|$ never spread beyond Phoenicia itself. The source of these changes, then, was Phoenician.

8. The correspondences of *aw and *av.

PHOENICIAN: [ô]/[ê], as in, for example, עלך ['alêka] "upon you" (Bronze Spat. 5), בת [bêt] "house, temple" (Yehimilk 1, etc.), לל [lêl(ê/a)] "night" (Karatepe A II 17), ש [yôm] "day" (Yehimilk 5; Kilamu 12; Karatepe A I 5, etc.), and y ['en] "eye" (Arsl.T. 2:2.4; cf. לען [li-'ênê] "before" [Yehawmilk 10]).94 The contraction of both diphthongs had already occurred by the El-Amarna period, for both Ugaritic and the Amarna letters from Syria reflect these contractions.95 In the first-millennium Phoenician dialects, diphthongs contracted in both medial and final positions, whether stressed or not. 96

Cross and Freedman, however, found an exception to diphthong contraction in the third person masc, sing, perfect of final weak verbs in Old Byblian. 97 They vocalized עלי "he attacks" (Ahirom 2), בני "he built" (Yehimilk 1: Shiptibaal 1), and no "he restored" (Yehimilk 2) as ['alay], [banay], and [hawway], respectively. Yet internal and comparative evidence suggest the vocalization ['alaya]. [banaya], and [hawwa/iya]. 98 Thus *aw and *ay contracted without exception throughout the Phoenician dialects.

ARAMAIC: [aw]/[ay], as in up [yawm] "day" (Sf. I A 12, etc.; Nerab 2:3.4; Fekh. 7), w ['aw] "or" (Sf. I B 27, etc.; Zkr B 21). בית [bayt] "house, dynasty" (Zkr B 9.12; Hama 7 A 923 + 7 A 538 [partially restored]; Br-Rkb 2:3.4; Fekh. 8, etc.), and שמק [šamayn] "heaven" (Zkr B 25; Sf. I A 11, etc.; Fekh. 2). In general, *aw and *ay were retained in both medial and final positions. 99

The only 100 real exception to the preservation of these diphthongs lay in the morphological distinction between certain "long" and "short" imperfects of final weak verbs. 101 In the "short" imperfect—i.e., in those forms derived from *vaatul—the final diphthong was preserved; it was marked by ". In the "long" imperfect, this diphthong contracted and was represented by 7-. 102

The oft-cited form בניהם [bênayhum] "between them" in Sf. III 18.18.19 remains unexplained. If the original form was *bayn, as all comparative evidence indicates, 104 the absence of 7 is notable. 105 So too בת "house" in Fekh. 17. 106

SAMALIAN: [aw]/[ay] when in medial position, and [ô]/[aw] and [ê] in final position. [aw] in medial position occurs in, for example, (הושב(ת) hawt/sib(t[u/i])] "I/he settled" (H 19; P 19) and מורד [mawdad] "friend" (H 24.27); 107 medial [ay] occurs in בית [bayt] "house, dynasty" (H 9; P 2, etc.), עין ['ayn] "eye" (H 30.32), and היטבה [haytibih (?)] "he made it better" (P 9). Final [ê] may appear in לילא [laylê] "night" (H 24) < *laylay. 108 Original final *aw is represented by 1-, as in אר "or" (H 16.25, etc.); it is unclear, however, whether the original diphthong contracted, like final *ay, or was preserved, like medial *aw. The orthography itself is ambiguous in this case.

In every instance that an original diphthong is expected, it is orthographically represented, except in two cases. The form יומי "my days" occurs in P 10.18, while in H 9 מי "my days" appears. Similarly, the expected איזיה "his brothers" appears in H 27.28, while in H 30 and P 17 איחה "his brothers" is found. In the case of ימי:יומי, scholars 109 generally noted that the marking and nonmarking of the original diphthong signifies that the diphthong had either contracted or was in the process of contracting. It is also possible, however, that Samalian had two, competing, plural forms of pr* "day." The first, represented by מי, is the extended plural of a NWS monosyllabic singular noun. It is characteristic of the NWS dialects that *qVtl- singular nouns form their plural as *qatal-.111 Thus Samalian [yawm] "day" had *yawam- as its plural, from which intervocalic waw was lost, 112 producing *yaam > *yâm-. The masc. plural morpheme [\bar{u}] was added to * $y\hat{a}m$, resulting in [$y\hat{a}m\bar{u}$] for the nominative plural corresponding to ימי; cf. BH ימים. The other plural form, יומי, developed differently. The singular noun, איום, was used as the base of the plural, to which was added the masc, plural morpheme. The result is [yawm]-singular → [yawmū]-plural, the nominative corresponding to יומי. This second plural formation resembles Old Aramaic יומן ''days'' (Sf. II C 17; Fekh. 7). For similarly competing forms, cf. biblical Aramaic ראשין "heads" (Dan. 7:6) < *ri's and באשרהם "their heads" (Ezr. 5:10) < *ra'aš-.

In the case of אידוה and אידוה, the difference in the orthography may reflect a grammatical difference in the two nouns. In Samalian, the nominative masc. pl. morpheme was [ū], and the oblique [ī]. 113 איזייה, with the ending [i], is in the oblique case, whether genitive (H 27) or accusative (H 28). איחה, however, is nominative, as is obvious from the words in apposition to it, 'rmales' (H 31) and "kings" (P 17). The orthographic difference between מלבו and איחה therefore reflects a difference in morphology. 114 איחה and איחה are different forms and are not different spellings of the same word. Therefore neither ימי nor איחה exemplifies incipient diphthong contraction in Samalian.

AMMONITE: lawl/lel, as in יומת [vawmot] "days" (Sir. 7) and -מות [mawt] "death" (seal of ענמות). "115 *ay, however, contracted in both medial (e.g., p [yen] "wine" [Hesh. Ost. 4:7.8]) and final positions (e.g., \(\pi\) [banê/i] 116 "the sons of" [Sir. 1.2, etc.]). The different treatment of *aw and *ay is paralleled in Attic Greek where, according to Sturtevant, 117 final *au was preserved and *ai contracted to [e].

DEIR ALLA: [aw]/[ay], in both medial and final positions. [18 [aw]] occurs, for example, in מועד [maw'id] "counsel" (1 6), מות [mawt] "death" (II 13.14), and אר awl "or" (II 9); [ay] appears in בית [bayt] "house, dynasty" (II 6, etc.), לילה [layla] "night" (I 1), בני [banay] "the sons of" (II 8), etc. 119 Since internal matres lectionis do not appear in these texts, 120 the semi-vowels and a mark uncontracted diphthongs.

The only exception to the preservation of these diphthongs in Deir Alla, as in Old Aramaic, lies in the distinction between "long" and "short" imperfect forms of the third person masc. sing. final weak gal verbs. 121 The diphthong was preserved in the "short" imperfect, :- [ay], but the diphthong contracted to [ê] (7-) in the "long" imperfect. 122

MOABITE: $[aw] > [au] > [\hat{o}]/[ay] > [ai] > [\hat{e}]$. The evidence of the Mesha stone suggests that these diphthongs were in a state of flux. 123 Uncontracted diphthongs are found in one gentilic (הדיבני [had-Dayboni] "the Dibanite" [Mesha 1/2]) and one place name (יוריכן: [Hawronan (?)] [Mesha 31.32]). Diphthong contraction, however, was the general rule in Moabite, as, for example, in השעני [hôši annī] "he saved me" (Mesha 4), ואשב [wā-ošib] "and I settled" (Mesha 13), ללה [lêlā] "night" (Mesha 15), מאתן [ma'tên] "200" (Mesha 20), and לפני [li-panê] "before" (Mesha 13.18). 124 Whereas, then, original diphthongs were pronounced in place names, the spoken language had diphthong contraction.

The link between these phonetic extremes is represented by a pair of words in which one lacks a marker of the original diphthong while the other marks the original diphthong. In na "house, dynasty" (Mesha 7.23) and na (Mesha 25), the first form points to diphthong contraction; the yodh of the second form, however, suggests the presence of the diphthong *ay. Whereas, then. Moabite place names have uncontracted diphthongs and the rest of the language shows general diphthong contraction, the doublet nature suggests that contraction was not complete by the late ninth century. Although the Mesha inscription reflects a dialect in which diphthongs had, for the most part, contracted, vestigial uncontracted forms do appear.

EDOMITE: [aw] > $[\hat{o}]/[(?)]$. Evidence for the diphthong *aw is found only in the divine name $pp.^{125}$ which is vocalized as [Qaus]/[Qaus] in Akkadian¹²⁶ and as Q3ws in Egyptian. ¹²⁷ Both vocalizations indicate that, at least through the seventh century, the diphthong in the divine name did not contract. By the Persian period, however, the diphthong had contracted, as in the PNs Qusuyada (Darius) and Qusuyahab (Artaxerxes 1). ¹²⁸ The diphthong, then, contracted within two centuries.

At present, there is no evidence for the correspondence(s) of *ay in Edomite.

NORTHERN HEBREW (North of Jerusalem): [ô]/[ê], as in γρ [qêş] "summer" (Gezer Cal. 7), ρ [yên] "wine" (Sam. Ost. passim), and [Ḥôrān (?)] "Horan" (Tell Qasile 2). Northern Hebrew thus followed the pattern of diphthong contraction already evident in Ugaritic and in the Amarna letters from north Palestine. 129

The only exception to diphthong contraction in northern Hebrew is the form pain Tell Qasile 2 and the Beth-Shean ostracon. The yodh would seem to indicate the presence of a diphthong, contrary to the general phonological trend in northern Hebrew. This exception may be explained in several ways, however. The yodh may be a mater lectionis for [ê]; there are, however, no parallels to this usage. The form may have been borrowed, or may have spread, from a dialect that did not contract diphthongs, as, for example, southern Hebrew. The single part of a place name in both instances, the form may not reflect current speech patterns but those of an earlier, nonmonophthongizing dialect. Whatever the

explanation, the form בים does not conform to the pattern of diphthong contraction in northern Hebrew. 133

southern hebrew (Jerusalem and the South): [aw]/[ay], as in און ('awd] "still" (Shiloah 1.2: Arad 1:5, 2:7), און [mawṣā'] "spring" (Shiloah 5), וי [yayn] "wine" (Arad 1:3.9, etc.; Lach. 25), and בית [bayt] "house, dynasty" (Beer-Sheba Ost. 1:4;¹³⁴ Silwan B 1; Mur 17 A 1). These diphthongs were uncontracted in both medial, and presumably final, positions. With respect to final diphthongs, however, the orthographic pattern in these texts is of no help since final long vowels are marked; whether contracted or not, a semi-vowel would appear in the orthography. Thus the consistent appearance of medial diphthongs suggests the presence of final diphthongs.

Two forms, ¹³⁶ however, may reflect diphthong contraction in the southern Hebrew dialect. The first is the place name תלד [Tôlād] < *Tawlad. ¹³⁷ This spelling is surprising, since the place itself was located in south Judah. But it is likely that the reading חלד is erroneous. ¹³⁸ In this case there is no contracted diphthong.

The other possible instance of diphthong contraction is reflected in the form of the word "day." While the form of appears throughout the southern Hebrew texts, ¹³⁹ it is striking that of the comparable to lyawm] in Old Aramaic and Ammonite, never appears. ¹⁴⁰ There are two explanations: (1) as in all Semitic languages, ¹⁴¹ BH had two forms of "day," *yawm > of [yôm] and *yam > [yāmīm]/-of [y³mê]. The appearance of of "day" in the southern Hebrew epigraphic texts, then, would suggest that, at one time, Hebrew had a form *yam > [yām] in the singular as well. ¹⁴³ (2) of was indeed pronounced [yôm], as in BH [yôm] < *yawm. This form had to be borrowed from a diphthong-contracting dialect, probably from northern Hebrew. In either case, the form of in southern Hebrew does not violate the rule that, in this dialect, all diphthongs were pronounced. ¹⁴⁴

The first-millennium NWS dialects reflect various degrees of diphthong contraction and noncontraction. At one extreme, Phoenician dialects and northern Hebrew contracted the diphthongs *aw and *ay in both medial and final positions. At the other extreme, Old Aramaic, the Deir Alla dialect, and southern Hebrew preserved these diphthongs in both positions. In Old Aramaic and the Deir Alla dialect, however, the diphthong contracted in the "long" imperfect

of some final weak forms. The treatment of *ay and *aw in Samalian resembles that of Old Aramaic and Deir Alla, except that *ay in final position contracted to [ê]; this contraction is perhaps attributable to the influence of Phoenician in Samal at this time.

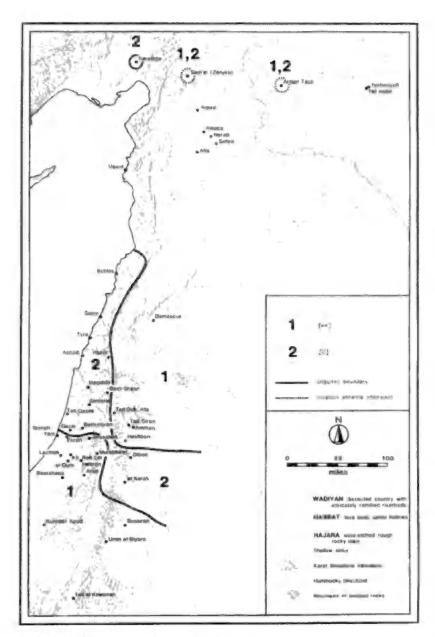
Those dialects which lay on the periphery of Aramaic- and Canaanite-speaking peoples show greater variation in the treatment of original diphthongs. In Ammonite, [aw] was preserved in medial (and final?) position, whereas *ay contracted to [ê] in both. In Edomite, the only evidence for original diphthongs suggests that *aw, preserved as late as the eighth-seventh centuries, contracted to [ô] by the fifth century B.C.E. Finally, *aw and *av in Moabite were in the process of contracting; place names preserved the original diphthongs, while the spoken language reflects a distinct tendency to contract diphthongs.

Two models can account for this distribution. Monophthongization may have originated in Phoenicia, and thence spread to northern Israel, later to Ammon, Moab, and finally reached Edom centuries later. Alternatively, monophthongization developed independently in several dialects as it did, for example, in Akkadian. As a result, it is unclear whether monophthongization is a shared innovation in NWS. The distribution of the phenomenon, however, suggests a Phoenician origin. 145

The treatment of *n + consonant.

BYBLIAN: Within the word, nun always assimilated to the following consonant, as for example in ארת ''lady'' (Elibaal 2; Shiptibaal 4) < * adont 146 and מג/פשת "offerings, possessions" (Bronze Spat. 4.5) $< *ng \acute{s}$ or $*np \acute{s}$. The only exception to this rule is that nun did not assimilate to a following larvngeal. 147 as for example "you will inherit" (Bronze Spat. 4).

Nun assimilated to the following consonant even between words, as for example ביחמלך "son of Yehimilk" (Shiptibaal 3; Elibaal 1 [partially restored]) < *bin + Yehimilk and בכלבי "son of Kalbay" ('Abdo) < *bin + Kalbay. This particular assimilation was restricted to \(\frac{1}{2} + PN, \) when the two words were pronounced in sandhi and when the initial letter of the second letter was not a laryngeal; cf. בן אחרם "son of Ahirom" (Ahirom I) and בן אלבעל "son of Elibaal" (Shiptibaal 2). The assimilation of *bin to the following



MAP 3: The correspondences of *aw.

word did not continue into later Byblian, for by the fifth century the form בן יחרבעל appears (Yehawmilk 1).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: Nun assimilated to the following consonant only within a word, as for example יסע (vissa') "he rips out" (Karatepe A III 15.17) < *yinsa^c, אין [yâzziq] "he damages" (Kilamu 14) < *yânziq, and possibly 148 cn [kattī] "I was" (Kilamu 6.10.10.11).

ARAMAIC: Nun always assimilated to the following consonant within a word, as for example אפר ['appayn] "face" (Sf. I A 28.42, III 2) < *'anp-, אשא [wā-'aśśa'] "and I raised" (Zkr A 11; see also Sf. I B 39, etc.) < *anśa², and יסחו [vass²hū] "may they remove" (Nerab 1:9) < *yans*hū. 149 The preposition m "from" did not assimilate to the following consonant (e.g., Zkr A 10.10, etc.; Sf. I A 30, B 8, etc.). 150

Although several exceptions have been adduced to the rule. they are not convincing. For example, Fitzmyer¹⁵¹ tentatively saw an unassimilated nun in תנתע (Sf. 1 B 29). Yet the division of words in this line is very difficult, and the proposed etymology of men < *ntd violates the regular Aramaic correspondence of *d; p as well. 152 Similarly, the forms ינצר "you protect" and ינצר "it will be protected" in Nerab 1:12.13153 may either be peal or pael conjugations. If peal, י/תנצר would be the only instance where nun failed to assimilate to the following consonant; cf. יסחר "may they remove" (Nerab 1:9). Yet it is also possible that the forms are pael, in which case the preservation of the nun could be explained by a vowel between the nun and sade ([yanatter (?)]. Thus, there is no clear evidence for an exception to the rule of the assimilation of nun to the following consonant in Old Aramaic.

SAMALIAN: Within a word, nun always assimilated to the following consonant, as for example יתנו "they will give" (H 4) < *ntn. את ['att(a)] "you" (H 33) < *'antā, חטה [hittā] "wheat" (H 6; P 6.9) < *hintā, and possibly an [mit(t)] "indeed" (H 12.13, etc.) < *mint. 154 The nun of p "from" never assimilated to the initial consonant of the following word (P 2.4.7, etc.). 155 The nonassimilation in this case may be attributable to the word divider separating the preposition from the word. Assimilation of nun, then, was only word-internal; cf. Byblian.

The only possible exception to this rule is the form of the infinitive לנצב "to erect" (H 10). This example is ambiguous, however, since the form may be a pael, 156 or a peal infinitive with a vowel between the first and second radicals. 157

AMMONITE: Although the evidence is scarce, it appears that nun assimilated to the following consonant within a word (as in the PN [Sir. 2] < *nsl). The nun of מנו "from" did assimilate to a following consonant, even if that consonant were a larvngeal (as in מאלת "from Elath" [Hesh. Ost. 4:4]). 158

DEIR ALLA: Nun assimilated to the following consonant within a word, as in יטפן "they drip (?)" (II 35.36) < *ntp. 159 The nun of מן "from," however, did not assimilate (1 3.13; 11 8.8.8). 160

MOABITE: Nun assimilated to the following consonant within a word, as for example nw [sat(t)] "year" (Mesha 2.8) < *sant and אשאז [wā-'aśśa'] "and I raised" (Mesha 20.30) < *ns'. The nun of "from" assimilated to a following laryngeal, as in מעלם "always" מעלם (Mesha 10) < *min + * o/alam. 161 The existence of the form בן. "son of Kemosh-yat" (Mesha 1) demonstrates that, unlike Old Byblian, nun did not assimilate between words.

EDOMITE: No certain evidence. An example of the preposition מעדר may appear in the Umm el-Biyara Ostracon, I. 2 מעדר "from 'Adr." The preposition pr*, then, would have assimilated to the following word, even if that word began with a laryngeal.

HEBREW: Nun always assimilated to the following consonant within a word (e.g., הכר [hikkū] "they struck" [Shiloah 4] < *nkh and מחן [tittin] "you shall give" [Arad 1:10] < *ntn). Also, the nun of ימן "from" assimilated to a following consonant (e.g., מין [miyyayn] "of wine" [Arad 1:9] < *min + yayn, etc.), even if it were a laryngeal (e.g., מאתך [mē-'ittāk] "from you" [Arad 5:2, 6:2] < *min + 'itt- and מערד [mē-carād] "from Arad" [Arad 24:12] < *min + 'Arad').

While the final nun of *ntn ''to give'' assimilated to the following consonant in the perfect (e.g., תחת "and you will give" [Arad 2:7/8] < *natant-), the nun of other 7" verbs did not assimilate in the perfect, as in BH שכנתי "I dwelt" and ישנתי "I am asleep." Although no such ל"ן verbs appear in epigraphic Hebrew, it is inferred from BH that this exception was present in the epigraphic texts as well.

All the dialects exhibit assimilation of nun to a following nonlaryngeal consonant, when that consonant was part of the same word as the nun. In Ammonite, Moabite, Edomite, and Hebrew, this assimilation extended to larvngeals as well. In Byblian, however, a following laryngeal obstructed the assimilation. Similarly, the assimilation of nun in m "from" occurred in Ammonite. Moabite. Edomite, and Hebrew as an extention of the assimilation of nun within a word. In Old Aramaic, Samalian, and the Deir Alla dialect, the nun of pp "from" did not assimilate.

It is doubtful, however, that these instances of assimilation reflect a shared innovation; nun assimilates to a following consonant in several Semitic languages. 164 The assimilation of nun, then, is most likely a case of independent development in the NWS dialects. 165

Two idiosyncratic innovations, however, can be isolated. Only 166 in Old Byblian did nun assimilate to the following consonant of a following word, in the construction *bin "son" + PN. Hebrew is also unique since in this dialect alone the nun of y"> verbs did not assimilate to a following consonant; cf. possibly standard Phoenician בת [kattī] "I was" < *kantī. 167 Thus, the assimilation of nun between words distinguishes Old Byblian (in *bin + PN), and the failure of the third radical of "verbs to assimilate distinguishes Hebrew.

10. The dissimilation of emphatics.

PHOENICIAN: Not in Phoenician (e.g., yp "extremity" [Karatepe A I 14.21] and קצר "harvest" [Karatepe A III 2, C IV 5]).

ARAMAIC: The evidence suggests that initial *q + emphatic dissimilated to ביצא + emphatic, as in ביצא "the summer" (Br-Rkb 1:19) < *gayt and כטל "to kill" (Nerab 1:11) < *gtl < *gtl. 168 See the later forms בציר "harvest" and הכצר "to harvest (?)" (Ahigar 127), and כצפה 'anger' (Ahiqar 101). 169 When *q was medial, it did not assimilate, as לקט "to collect" (Fekh. 22).

The distribution of this dissimilation suggests that it was a general, Aramaic phonetic trait. While in later dialects, particularly Mandaic, 170 dissimilation of *qoph* became characteristic of eastern Aramaic, 171 in the early period dissimilation occurred in both western (Samal) and eastern (Nerab) Syro-Palestinian Aramaic texts. At this period, then, dissimilation of initial *qoph* in the presence of an emphatic does not indicate any dialectal affinities with either East or West; cf. also the sporadic appearance of this dissimilation in later western Aramaic. 172

SAMALIAN: Evidence uncertain. If Ginsberg¹⁷³ is correct in interpreting קשתה (H 26.32) as "his truth," this word would constitute evidence that emphatics could dissimilate in Samalian. The Samalian form would agree with that of Syriac [quštā], as opposed to Mandaic [kuštā] in which the first radical dissimilated. Yet while Ginsberg's new interpretation accords well with the context of H 26, it does not fit the military context of H 32 (hence the traditional meaning "his bow" is justified there).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Probably not in Deir Alla (e.g., יקקן "constraint" [I |4| < *dwq). There is, however, no word in the Deir Alla texts which begins with *qoph and is followed by an emphatic.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Not in Hebrew (e.g., אָך "summer" [Gezer Cal. 7] and "to harvest" [Yavneh-Yam 1:3.4.10]).

The dissimilation of emphatics is found in Old Aramaic, and possibly in Samalian. The meager evidence suggests that this dissimilation was restricted to initial qoph + emphatic consonant. In Old Aramaic, the *qoph* dissimilated to *kaph*; in Samalian, the following emphatic dissimilated. In terms of distribution, the dissimilation of emphatics is found in both northern and central regions. In the later Aramaic dialects, however, it occurs most commonly in Mandaic (East Aramaic), but is also found sporadically in western dialects as well; the Samalian form pwp* has a parallel only in Syriac. While the dissimilation of emphatics was a specifically Aramaic innovation, 175 it was not particular to one Aramaic-speaking community.

Anaptyxis. 11.

PHOENICIAN: Incipient anaptyxis in words whose middle radical was a laryngeal. 176 as especially in PNs containing the element בעל (Ba-'a-lu [ANET', pp. 290-292, 297]; Ba-'a-al-ma-lu-ku [ANET', p. 296], etc. 177). Perhaps the transcription of the PN שפטבעל as Sipí-it-ti-bi-2i-il (ANET3, pp. 282, 283)178 indicates that anaptyxis began to spread from middle laryngeal nouns to other, strong nouns. 179

ARAMAIC: At least incipient anaptyxis, as seen in the contrast between צדה [sadê] "owl" (Sf. 1 A 33) < *sady and בדה [gadê] "kid" (Sf. II A 2) < *gady, over against צבי "gazelle" (Sf. I A 33) < *taby. 180 While all three nouns are *qatl- formations of final weak roots, the vacillation between final 7- and 3- indicates different phonetic realizations. The forms with final he suggest that the vowel was [ê]; in other words, *gady gained a secondary vowel between the second two radicals, *gadiy, which contracted to [gadê]. 181 The form אריה "lion" (Sf. II A 9) also presupposes anaptyxis since it is traceable from *'aryiy 182 > ['aryê]. צבי, however, either preserves the older form with its final weak consonant, or it represents a different set of phonological changes from those in אדה and גדה. Cf., for example, BH בכה "weeping" vs. בבי "weeping." The available evidence, then, suggests that anaptyxis was operative in at least its beginning stages.

SAMALIAN: Apparently not in Samalian, as for example שבי "captives" (collective singular) 184 (P 8) < *siby. The examples adduced by Dion¹⁸⁵ to demonstrate anaptyxis—אבח (H 20), ארח (H 23), and xpm (H 33)—are semantically and morphologically difficult; anaptyxis cannot be proven by these examples alone. Finally, Poebel 186 and Dion 187 explained w "likeness, similitude" (H 18) as derived from *siwy > *siwiy > (syncopation of intervocalic waw)* $\check{s}iiy > [\check{s}i]$; anaptyxis must be assumed if the development of this noun is to be traced correctly. Yet in this case as well, שי may mean "gift" (BH שי) and need not involve anaptyxis at all. Thus there is no unambiguous example of anaptyxis in Samalian.

AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Probably not in the early period. Anaptyxis apparently began at a later time, as reflected, in its early stage, by Septuagint transcriptions. 189

From the evidence at hand, only Phoenician and Aramaic show signs of anaptyxis in the eighth-seventh centuries B.C.E. Yet the relationship between anaptyxis in these two dialects is unclear. Anaptyxis may have developed independently in both dialects (cf. later Hebrew) or may have spread from one to the other (cf. the geographical contiguity of Phoenician and Aramaic). However, the history of the phenomenon itself,190 suggesting a universal Semitic tendency to break up consonant clusters, as well as the strong isogloss between Aramaic and Phoenician dialects, indicate that anaptyxis probably arose independently in these two dialects. 191

12. The prothetic 'aleph. 192

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: If the prothetic aleph appears in אגרד "band" (Karatepe A I 15). 193 this example is unique in standard Phoenician. It is also possible, however, that אגדד represents an *'aqtūl nominal formation. In that case, the prefixed aleph was not a phonetic feature but part of the nominal pattern.

In the later Phoenician dialects, particularly in Cyprian, the prothetic aleph commonly occurred before sibilants, as for example אשנם "two" (KAI 32:3) < *šnêm and the demonstrative pronoun זא "this" (KAI 31:1, 32:2, etc.) $< *z.^{194}$ In the early period, the only example of prothetic aleph before a sibilant is the relative wx < *š. 195 In this case, however, the prothetic aleph also marked a syntactic difference: while wx was the relative particle, w was the genitive. 196 The prothetic aleph in אש, then, was phonemic.

ARAMAIC: Only in אשם "name" (Sf. 1 C 25, II B 7) $< *šm^{197}$ (cf. wa "name" [Zkr C 2.2; Nerab 1:10, 2:3]) and the place name אזרן (Fekh. 13) < *Zarani (Fekh. Akkadian text, 1, 20). The pronunciation of the place name, however, is uncertain. Either it was ['Azarani] 198 or perhaps ['Azrani] < *Zrani; 199 the latter vocalization presumes the loss of the initial unaccented vowel. The present evidence, then, suggests that the prothetic aleph appeared in Old Aramaic only before sibilants in (?) initial consonant clusters. Admittedly, two lone examples do not constitute a phonetic rule.

SAMALIAN: Only in isolated instances—אשם "name" (H 16.21), אגם "also" (P 5), and אשם "two-thirds mina" (P 6). In אשם, the prothetic aleph broke up the initial consonant cluster * šm by making the cluster noninitial. The aleph in אסנב was not, as some scholars believed, 200 part of the conjunction [wa], since there is no definite proof that Samalian had a conjunction at beside the regular -1.201 Rather, the aleph broke up an initial consonant cluster *sneb < Akkadian sinepû; the Akkadian word, probably with stress on the ultima, lost the first syllable since its short vowel in an open syllable was two positions away from the accent. In this way, the reduction of the vowel created a consonant cluster, which in turn was broken up by a prothetic *aleph*. Finally, the *aleph* in max remains unexplained, since the form an "also" appears in H 8.9 and P 16.²⁰³

AMMONITE: Possibly in אחלסחר "Cistern" (Sir. 5) and אחלסחר "(?)" (Sir. 4). 204 The reading of the second word, however, is uncertain. Thompson and Zayadine 205 read the second letter as taw and derived the noun from *hwr. Cross 206 read the second letter samekh and interpreted the word as "wall (of circumnavigation)" < *shr. While both readings require the presence of a prothetic aleph, Cross אחלסחר was attached only to sibilants; see also the relative particle which is now and אחלסחר was part of the nominal formation (*aqtul, *aqtul, *aqtul, etc.).

DEIR ALLA: Only in אפרח "chick" (I 8). While Hoftijzer²⁰⁷ interpreted the *aleph* as part of a broken plural formation, such broken plurals are uncommon in NWS.²⁰⁸ Indeed, comparison with BH אפרח suggests that the *aleph* was merely phonetic. In this case, the *aleph* broke up an initial consonant cluster.

MOABITE: Only in משמר "cistern" (Mesha 9.23 [partially restored]). Since the vocalization of this word is not known, the exact function of the *aleph* is uncertain.²⁰⁹ It is suspected, however, that it broke up an initial consonant cluster.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: There are no examples of the prothetic *aleph* in epigraphic Hebrew. The evidence of Masoretic Hebrew, however, suggests that in epigraphic Hebrew too, the prothetic *aleph* arose in order to break up initial consonant clusters. In Hebrew, moreover, there is no special connection between the prothetic *aleph* and initial sibilants.

Initial consonant clusters are unstable in all the Semitic languages and are commonly broken up by prothesis. ²¹⁰ The prothetic aleph appears throughout the NWS dialects. In standard Phoenician and Old Aramaic, the scanty evidence suggests that the prothetic aleph was not a regular phonetic feature. In Ammonite, and possibly Moabite, as well as in later Phoenician dialects, the prothetic aleph was attracted to sibilants; in Old Aramaic too, both examples of the prothetic aleph preceded sibilants. In the Deir Alla dialect and Masoretic Hebrew, there was no special connection between the prothetic aleph and initial sibilants.

13. *CV' > $[C\hat{V}]$.

PHOENICIAN: The aleph was lost, at least in speech, when it was syllable-closing²¹¹ (e.g., * $ra^2 \check{s} > ra \check{s} > [r \tilde{o} \check{s}] = Greek \rho \omega$, and Punic nasot "I bore" [Poen, 947] < *naśa'ti). Although the aleph was lost in the spoken language, it was still written, as for example צאן [son] "sheep" (Karatepe A III 9, etc.), ראש [roš] "head" (Kilamu 15.16), and the later Byblian form קראת [qarōtī] "I called" (Yehawmilk 7).

ARAMAIC: There are only two alleged examples of the loss of aleph in Aramaic. The first, אהבר "I shall destroy" (Sf. II C 5), thought by some²¹² to reflect the syncope of syllable-closing aleph in its beginning stages, is rather a scribal error for אהאבר which does appear in Sf. II C 4.213 The other example is בירא "well (?)" (Sf. I B 34) < *bi'r, where a syllable-closing aleph would have quiesced, producing a long vowel.²¹⁴ Yet even though the latter example is possible, syllable-closing aleph was otherwise retained in both verbs (e.g., א" peal imperfects) and nouns (e.g., ראש "head"). The lone example of בירא, then, is counterbalanced by the otherwise consistent preservation of aleph in all positions.

SAMALIAN: The only possible instance of the loss of postvocalic aleph is קרני "he summoned me" (H 13), if the verbal root is *ar'. 215 In no other instance, however, was the aleph lost, as for example in אים verbs (יאמר "he seizes" [H 15, etc.], יאמר "he will say" [H 17, etc.], and לאכל "to eat" [H 23]).216

AMMONITE: No evidence of the loss of aleph. In both cases of syllable-closing aleph—יצאן "sheep" (Hesh. Ost. 4:2.7.10) and דשא "grass" (Hesh. Ost. 4:9)—the aleph is retained in the orthography. Whether it persisted in the spoken language is unknown.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence of the loss of aleph from the consonantal text, for example יאנש "he will weaken" (II 10), האמר "and he said" (1 4/5), and ראש "head" (II 11).

MOABITE: There are two probable, and one possible, instances of the loss of aleph. רש "chief" (Mesha 20) is probably cognate to the common Semitic *ra's; the aleph had therefore been absorbed into the preceding [a].217 The other likely candidate is "cistern" (Mesha 24.25). Whether this word is cognate to BH באר $< *bi'r^{218}$ or to BH z < bu'r, 219 the outcome is identical; syllable-closing aleph was lost in the Moabite word. That syllable-closing aleph was not always lost, however, is proven by אאן "sheep" (Mesha 31). 220 The latter, however, is probably a historical spelling.

Finally, it is possible that aleph was lost in יית "spectacle (?)" (Mesha 12), if the root is r^3y . 221 Yet the nominal pattern of this word is thoroughly obscure. Would the supposed aleph have been syllable-opening or syllable-closing?

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Postvocalic aleph was lost in, for example, לקרת "toward" (Shiloah 4) = BH לקראת. ²²² Aleph is present in, for example, "head" (Shiloah 6). Like BH, then, syllable-closing aleph was absorbed into the preceding vowel in epigraphic Hebrew;²²³ the appearance of etymological aleph in forms such as ראש is attributable to historical spelling.

With respect to the loss of postvocalic aleph, the first-millennium NWS dialects fall into two groups. In the Deir Alla dialect and Old Aramaic (except for one possible example), etymological aleph was always preserved in syllable-closing position. Ammonite is the only overall Canaanite dialect which preserved aleph in all texts. although the quiescence of this consonant might have begun in the spoken language.

In Phoenician, Moabite, and Masoretic Hebrew, the syllableclosing aleph was lost. This syncope was (presumably) consistent in all three dialects, although only in Moabite and Hebrew did the loss of aleph enter the written language as well. In Samalian too. postvocalic aleph might have been absorbed into the preceding vowel. Since the consonantal quality of aleph had weakened severely in several Semitic languages, 224 the syncope of aleph in NWS reflects a general Semitic phenomenon. The loss of syllable-closing aleph, then, might have developed independently in the individual NWS dialects.

The aphaeresis of 'aleph. 14.

BYBLIAN: Initial aleph was not lost (see examples below).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: In Phoenician personal names, there was a tendency to drop initial aleph when it began an open syllable two positions away from the accent, as for example Hi-ru-um-mu (ANET³, p. 283) = חרם (KAI 31:1) < אחרם [⁵Ahīrōm] (Ahirom 1) and Tu-ba- 2 -lu (ANET³, p. 287) < |A| (Ahirom 1). Whether this aphaeresis was a regular feature of the spoken language, however, cannot be determined.

ARAMAIC: Loss of initial aleph occurred only in the numeral "one" אחר (Sf. I B 26.26, etc.; Br-Rkb 1:13) < * ahad (as in Arabic and Ugaritic). Cf., in contrast, אנש "man" (Sf. III 16 [plural]; Fekh. 9.14) and אשרת "sanctuary" (Sf. 1 B 11) < Akk. aširtu.

Since aphaeresis of aleph was restricted to a single word, it cannot have been a regular phonetic feature of the dialect. In some way, the aphaeresis was peculiar to this numeral. 226 Perhaps the loss of aleph was conditioned by the construction "one" + bound plural noun, as for example חד מלכן "one king" (Sf. I B 26; Br-Rkb 1:13) and חד מלכי ארפד 'one of the kings of Arpad'' (Sf. III 1). The initial syllable of *'ahad, both open and removed from the principal stress of the construct phrase, was lost in this very unstable position. Whatever the origin of this aphaeresis, however, the form [had] < *'ahad became characteristic of all Aramaic dialects. 227

SAMALIAN: Loss of initial aleph occurred only in the numeral "one" and (H 15.27; P 5), as in Old Aramaic and Deir Alla; 228 no other noun shows this aphaeresis, as the form waw "man" (P 23) suggests. It is unclear, however, whether the form arr was borrowed from Aramaic or participated in the same innovation as in Aramaic (cf. H 27.27 and P 5). Nevertheless, the restriction of this aphaeresis to an is notable. See, similarly, Deir Alla.

AMMONITE: No evidence. The alleged attestation of the numeral "one," חד*, in the phrase כחד אבחד (Cit. 3)229 does not exist. Rather, is an inf. absolute + imperfect of the root *khd "to destroy. "230

DEIR ALLA: Initial aleph was lost only in the numeral "one" an (II 10). Cf., perhaps, אנפה "heron" (I 8) < BH אנפה.

MOABITE: Aleph was not lost in initial position (e.g., אחר "after" [Mesha 3]).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Loss of initial aleph occurred only in יחים "we" (Lach. 4:10/11) < BH אנדער ²³¹ In view of the common BH [anahnū], the epigraphic form appears to have lost the initial aleph. Yet in comparison with other Semitic forms of this pronoun, for example Arabic [nahnu], Akk. ninu, and Eth. [n³hna], the epigraphic form is historically correct; the reconstructed Proto-Semitic form does not have an initial aleph. 232 And, since there is no other example of the first person plural independent pronoun in epigraphic Hebrew, it is unclear whether this form was the common one or whether an initial aleph (cf. BH) was indeed lost. Nevertheless, the loss of an initial

+ short vowel in an open, unaccented syllable is consistent with the general pattern of the other NWS dialects.

Initial ' + short vowel, in an open, unaccented syllable is subject to aphaeresis in the first-millennium NWS dialects. On the basis of the present evidence, the aphaeresis was absent from Byblian and Moabite, whereas it occurred, to different degrees, in standard Phoenician, Old Aramaic, Samalian, the Deir Alla dialect, and (?) Hebrew. In standard Phoenician, this process was most prominent, for PNs often lost this syllable when it lay two positions away from the accent. In Old Aramaic, Samalian, and the Deir Alla dialect, loss of initial aleph was restricted to the numeral "one" and < *'ahad; in Samalian and Deir Alla, though, it is unclear whether this loss of initial aleph reflects an innovation shared with Old Aramaic or whether an was borrowed from Old Aramaic. Nevertheless, given the restricted nature of this aphaeresis to a single word. the form an connects these three dialects as one dialectal group. Finally, loss of initial aleph may have occurred in Hebrew, only in the pronoun "we" נחנו.

The syncope of *yodh* between short vowels (except *wa + impf.).

BYBLIAN: The only evidence pertains to the syncope in originally final position. In dervocalic yodh did not syncopate, as for example עלי ['alaval "he attacks" (Ahirom 2), בני [banaval "he built" (Yehimilk 1: Shiptibaal 1), and nn [hawwa/ival "he restored" (Yehimilk 2).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: Syncope was regular in final position, as in final weak perfect verbs (e.g., tn [hazo] "he saw" [Kilamu 11.11.121 < *haza < *hazaya). In initial position, however, the evidence is mixed. In the causative conjugation, intervocalic yodh was lost in the imperfect (e.g., די "he damages" [Kilamu 14] < , whereas in the preposition "through" both forms appear (e.g., ba-di-u | EA 245:35) = cr [bod] (KAI 60:1) vs. cr [Kilamu 6;cf. 1. 131).

A possible exception to the syncope of intervocalic yodh is אלפתח "may it be opened" (Arsl.T. 1:22/23).234 Whether the prefixed -5 be vocalized [lū], [li], or [lu], the effect is identical: the yodh remains. Yet new readings of this text have shown that this form does not

exist. In its stead, אל יפתח should be read. 235 Intervocalic vodh, then. syncopated everywhere except in the preposition "through" (Kilamu 6).

ARAMAIC: Syncope was regular in final weak perfect verbs, as for example ה[ח] [hawât] "it became" (Sf. III 24) < *hawaya-t. In initial position, yodh did not syncopate in ביד [ba/i-yad] "through" (Zkr A 12), but syncopation occurred when the precative lamedh was followed by the third person jussive (as for example "may he be" [Fekh. 12] < *li-yihway, לאכלו "may they eat" [Fekh. 22] < *li-va'kulū, etc.). 236

SAMALIAN: Intervocalic yodh syncopated in final weak perfect verbs, as for example min [hawât] "it was/fell" (P 2) < *hawaya-t and perhaps שתא "it drank" (H 9) < *šatava. In initial position. however, the yodh did not always syncopate. It did not syncopate in ביד [ba/i-yad] "in the hand of" (H 2.4.8), ביד "in Y'dy" (H 25), etc. It did syncopate when precative -5 was attached to third person imperfect verbs, as in למנע [limna'] "may he prevent" (H 24) < *li-vimna' and לכתשה 'may they pound him' (H 31) < *livaktušū-,237

AMMONITE: The evidence indicates that intervocalic yodh syncopated in final weak perfect verbs, as for example בנה [banō] "he built" (Cit. 1) < *banâ < *banaya.²³⁸ In the preposition "from, through." the vodh was retained in the PN ביראל²³⁹ but was lost in the PN לבדאל ²⁴⁰

DEIR ALLA: Intervocalic yodh syncopated in final weak perfect verbs, as for example שהה [šahâ (?)] "it is desolate" (II 14) < *šahaya. The presence of yodh in vnw (1 10), however, does not fall into this category since yodh was followed by a long vowel.241

MOABITE: Intervocalic *yodh* syncopated in final weak perfect verbs, as for example בנה [banâ (?)] "he built" (Mesha 18) < *banaya. No other example of the syncopation of intervocalic yodh appears.

EDOMITE: There is no evidence to indicate whether intervocalic yodh syncopated in final weak verbs. Initial yodh, however, might have been lost in בר "from, through" < *ba/i-yad, which forms part of a PN in Ost. 6043:2242 (partially restored) and which might have been an independent preposition in the Umm el-Biyara ostracon.²⁴³

HEBREW: Intervocalic yodh was syncopated in final weak perfect verbs, as for example היה [hāyâ] "it was" (Shiloah 1) < *hayaya and עשה ['āśâ] "he did" (Lach. 4:3) < *'aśava. Intervocalic vodh

did not syncopate in initial position (e.g., ביד "through" [Arad 17:9; cf. the restored passages in Arad 16:5/6 and 24:13/14]).²⁴⁴

In varying degrees, intervocalic *vodh* was syncopated in all firstmillennium NWS dialects. Standard Phoenician, Aramaic, Samalian, Ammonite, the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew have lost the final yodh in the perfect of final weak verbs. In Byblian Phoenician, however, this final yodh was preserved.

The form of the composite preposition $\tau + z$ also differed within the dialects. In Samalian-Phoenician, Aramaic, Samalian, and Hebrew, intervocalic yodh did not syncopate. In later Phoenician and Edomite, the yodh disappeared. Ammonite shows examples of each spelling. Perhaps the different forms are traceable to different vocalizations of the preposition -2.245

Finally, an initial yodh in verbal forms was lost in standard Phoenician, Old Aramaic, and Samalian. In standard Phoenician, the yodh of the causative conjugation was lost in all imperfect forms. In Aramaic and Samalian, the yodh of the third person jussive forms was lost following the precative lamedh. The phonetic environment in Aramaic and Samalian was apparently identical, whereas that of Phoenician was probably different.

The syncope of intervocalic he. 16.

BYBLIAN: Only the he of the third person masc. sing. suffix attached to singular nouns was syncopated in Byblian.²⁴⁶ The syncopation occurred between the tenth and ninth centuries. In the Ahirom inscription, intervocalic he was present in the suffix, as for example אבה [abī-hū] "his father" (l. 1), משפטה [mašpaţi-hū] "of his judgment" (1. 2), and מלכה [mulki-hū] "of his dominion" (1. 2); cf. שתה [šōtahū] "he placed him" (l. 1). One century later the he was lost, as in ארתר ['adottaw, -tô] or ['adottiw] "his lady" (Elibaal 2; Shiptibaal 4) < *'adôttahū or *-tihū; the quality of the connecting vowel is unknown. Cf. also the fifth-century form זרעו [zar'aw, -rô] "his seed" (Yehawmilk 15) < *zarcahū. 247

Intervocalic he did not syncopate when the definite article followed the conjunction -1 "and." Although the evidence is late, the forms יהערפת 'and the portico' (Yehawmilk 6) < *wa-ha . . . and "and the bird" (Yehawmilk 5) < *wa-ha . . . demonstrate that, in Byblian, h of the definite article was not lost after *wa "and."

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: The he of the third person possessive and objective suffixes was lost when attached to consonantal endings, as for example pw [smô] "his name" (Karatepe A III 14.16) $< *-a-h\tilde{u}$, pw [smal] "its name" (Karatepe A II 10.18) $< *-a-h\tilde{a}$, and [vôšibom] "(I) made them settle" (Karatepe A I 20) < *-ahumu. If, however, a vowel preceded the suffix, the resultant form was - for the singular and D2- for the plural suffixes. 248

The definite article he was lost after the prepositions -2 and ל- (e.g., במקמם "in the places" [Karatepe A II 3] $< \pi + \pi^*$) and after the conjunction -ו "and" (e.g., ועם ז "and this people" [Karatepe A III 7/8, C IV 7] $< \pi + 1^*$ and $\pi = 1$ "and the sacrifice" [Karatepe C IV 2] $< \pi + 1^*$, etc.).²⁵⁰

ARAMAIC: Intervocalic he did not syncopate in Old Aramaic. The supposed exceptions to this rule are, in fact, uncertain. While, for example, the causative form 'occ "he will hand over" in Sf. III 3. without the causative he, may reflect the syncopation of intervocalic he (cf. the correct יסכר in Sf. III 3).251 יסכר is most likely a scribal error.²⁵² The other, more celebrated example of this syncope in the third person masc. sing. suffix m-253 is likewise questionable;254 in no other NWS dialect was the he syncopated in this suffix.255

The only real exception to the rule of nonsyncopation is in Fekh.-Aramaic, where the third person plural suffixes on sing, nouns were p- (Fekh. 4.4) and 1- (Fekh. 3.5), masc, and fem. 256

SAMALIAN: Syncopation of intervocalic he occurred only in the imperfect of the causative conjugation (e.g., יקם [vâgim] "he will erect" [H 28] < *yula-haqim and יוכר [yazkir (?)] "he will mention" [H 16] < *vula-hazkir).²⁵⁷ The he in the third person suffixes did not syncopate (e.g., אבה "his father" [H 29; P 2, etc.] and ידיה "his hands" [H 29]).

AMMONITE: It is unclear whether, or to what extent, intervocalic he syncopated in Ammonite. There are, for example, no occurrences of the definite article -n preceded by the prepositions -2 or -5; but the definite article did not syncopate after *wa "and" (e.g., וה.גנת "and the garden" [Sir. 4] and יהאת/סחר "and the (?)" [Sir. 4]). There are also no examples of the causative stem in the imperfect. 258

It is likely that intervocalic he was retained in the third person suffixes. Nevertheless, all suffixed forms are not completely understood. If, for example, כרה "its laver (?)" (Cit. 5) contains the third person masc. sing. suffix on a masc. sing. noun, 259 the final he marks the suffix. And according to the orthographic pattern of this inscription, this he is most likely consonantal. Cf. similarly Cross 260 reading אכחר הור 'I shall extirpate him' (Cit. 3).

DEIR ALLA: Intervocalic he was syncopated in the causative imperfect (example uncertain). 261 He of the third person suffixes, however. was retained in the singular (e.g., לבבה "his heart" [II 12] and "his people" [14, II 17]) and plural (only on prepositions, e.g. "to them" [1 5]). In the plural suffix attached to sing, nouns, the form was ב-< *-a-humu²⁶² (e.g., בלבבם "in their heart" [II 121²⁶³). Cf. Hebrew.

MOABITE: Intervocalic he syncopated when the definite article was preceded by an enclitic preposition (e.g., בקר "in the city" [Mesha 11] < *bi/a-hag-qir), 264 and when the causative particle he was preceded by a personal pronoun of the imperfect (e.g., אשב "and I brought back" [Mesha 12] < א + ה + שב + ה + א").

It is unclear, however, whether he syncopated in third person sing. suffixes. According to Harris, 26.5 intervocalic he has syncopated. He vocalized ארצה "his land" (Mesha 5/6) as l'arsôl < *arşahū; for final he as [ô], he adduced the name נבה "Nebo" (Mesha 14) = BH גבה. Yet the exact value of the final he in בבה as a transcription of Akkadian "Nabu" is uncertain, especially in view of the spelling נבא in Sf. I A 8;266 there are no other certain examples of Moabite π - with the value $[\hat{o}]$. Further, the he of the third person masc. sing. suffix was present on masc. plural nouns (e.g., ימה "his days" [Mesha 8] and שעריה "its chiefs" [Mesha 20]; cf. שעריה "its gates" [Mesha 22]). Thus, since there is no syncopation of the suffixed he on plural nouns, it is uncertain whether the suffixed he on sing, nouns syncopated either. There remain, then, two possibilities: (1) syncopation of he did not occur in the Moabite third person suffixes, comparable to the situation in Old Aramaic and probably Samalian;²⁶⁸ or (2) intervocalic he syncopated after an a-vowel (e.g., ['arsô] < *-ahū) but remained after long/contracted vowels (e.g., [yômôh] $< *-awh < *-awhu, ^{269}$ comparable to standard Phoenician and Hebrew. On the basis of the orthography, either alternative is possible.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Intervocalic he was syncopated when the prepositions "in the rock בצר, and -ב preceded the definite article (e.g., בצר "in the rock" [Shiloah 3] < אב + ה + צר "to the officer" [Yavneh-Yam

he cause to hear" [Lach. 2:1, 3:2, etc.] < *yu/a-hašmi"). After the conjunction *wa, however, the definite article did not syncopate.

Syncopation of intervocalic he in the third person suffixes is a more complicated issue.²⁷⁰ In general, the third person masc, sing. suffix lost he after short a (e.g., ע]ברה ['abdô] "his servant" [Lach. 2:5] < *-aw < *-ahū and ממחה [²amātô] "his maidservant" [Silwan B 2| < *-aw < *-ahū; similarly the objective suffix, לקחה [l'gāhô] "he took him" [Lach. 4:6] < *-aw < *lagah + a + hu and and and with the state of the state of"he sent it" [Lach. 3:21] $< *šalah + a + h\tilde{u}$); after accented connecting vowels, the he was retained (e.g., the objective suffix on "and he brought him up" [Lach. 4:6/7]). Similarly, the third person plural suffix lost intervocalic he after short a (e.g., pr [yômâm] "their day" [Ajrud] < *-ahem < *-a-humu and אתם ['ôtâm] "them" [Arad 3:6] < *-ahem < * $\delta t + a + humu$; so too the objective suffix in והבקידם [w²-hibqīdām (?)] "and he will hand them over" [Arad 24:14/15] < *hibqid + a + humu), except in the monoconsonantal prepositions (e.g., להם "to/for them" [Arad 1:8] < *lahumu): intervocalic he was retained after long vowels (no examples from the epigraphic texts).

Two problematic forms, however, remain. In רעו "his fellow" (Shiloah 3), the third person masc. sing. suffix appears as waw instead of he. Although Cross and Freedman²⁷¹ vocalized the form [re'ew], such a suffix [ew] would be anomalous on final weak roots; cf. BH רעהו "his fellow" and ויעלהו (Lach. 4:6/7). Rather, the final waw in רעו is an alternate spelling for the third person masc. sing. suffix π . The form, then, should be vocalized $[r\tilde{e}'\hat{o}] < *re' +$ $ah\bar{u}$. The base of רעו was *ri*, in contrast to the final weak root in "field." שרה "field." שרה "field."

The other problematic form is the third person masc, sing, suffix on masc. plural nouns. Whereas most scholars²⁷³ posited syncope of he in this suffix, it is unnecessary to trace the development of the suffixed form in this fashion. Such a derivation does not accord with the other forms of the suffix in the NWS dialects.

Intervocalic he in the first-millennium NWS dialects syncopated in different degrees. All NWS dialects with a prefixed definite article lost the article when it was preceded by a monoconsonantal preposition. In standard Phoenician, the definite article was lost after the conjunction *wa "and" as well. Standard Phoenician, then, extended the application of a general phonetic rule.

Of those dialects which had he as the causative prefix, he was lost in imperfect forms in Samalian, Deir Alla (?), Moabite, and Hebrew. In contrast, causative he was consistently preserved in Old Aramaic, Old Aramaic was therefore conservative in this respect.

The treatment of intervocalic he varied most in the third person pronominal suffixes. On the basis of the present evidence, this he did not syncopate in Old Byblian, Old Aramaic (except at Fekheriyeh), and (probably) Moabite; preservation of intervocalic he may have been the rule in Samalian, Ammonite, and the singular suffix in Deir Alla as well. In contrast to these dialects, intervocalic he was lost in later Byblian 1- [aw, ô] < *-a-hū, standard Phoenician suffixes attached to consonantal endings, and in the third person plural suffix in the speech of Fekheriyeh and Deir Alla (attached to consonants). If this characterization is correct, the singular suffix in Fekh.-Aramaic and Deir Alla followed the Old Byblian-Old Aramaic pattern (preservation), while the plural suffix followed standard Phoenician (syncope).

He of the third person suffixes in Hebrew and standard Phoenician behaved differently. In Hebrew, he syncopated after a, but it was preserved after long or accented vowels. In standard Phoenician, however, he syncopated when the suffix was attached to a consonant (e.g., $[\hat{o}] < *-ah\hat{u}$). But when attached to a vocalic ending, he was replaced by yodh in the singular suffixes and by nun in the plural. The derivation of the syncopated form, however, is identical in both dialects: *- $ah\tilde{u} > [\hat{o}]$ (sing. suff.), and *-a- $humu > [\tilde{a}m]$ (Hebrew) and [om] (standard Phoenician) (plural suff.). Whereas, then, the development of the suffixes with syncopated he unites Hebrew and standard Phoenician, the synchronic rules for choosing the syncopated or nonsyncopated suffix were idiosyncratic in each dialect.

17. The palatalization of \(\pi^*\).

BYBLIAN: No palatalization, for example משפטה "of his judgment" and מלכה "of his rule" (Ahirom 2). There is no example of the causative particle in this dialect.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: 17* changed to in the presence of an ivowel.²⁷⁴ Palatalization of π^* was restricted to third person sing. pronominal suffixes (e.g., למ-נערי [li-min-na'ūrê-yū/ī]²⁷⁵ "from his youth'' [Kilamu 12] $< *-\hat{e}-h\tilde{u} < *-av-h\tilde{u}$ and צרתי [sarŏti-yū/j] ''of his co-wives" [Arsl.T. 1:17] $< *-i-h\tilde{u}$)²⁷⁶ and the *yiphil* causative stem (i.e. [yip'il] < *hip'il; cf. EA 256:7 hi-ih-bi-e "he hid" with prefixed i-vowel in the perfect causative). This palatalization did not extend to the independent pronouns of the third person.²⁷⁷

ARAMAIC: No palatalization, since the causative prefix and pronominal suffixes of the third person were formed with he.

SAMALIAN: No palatalization. AMMONITE: No palatalization. DEIR ALLA: No palatalization. MOABITE: No palatalization. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: No palatalization.

Palatalization of *he to yodh was a strictly Phoenician phonetic phenomenon, occurring only in the presence of [i] and i-grade vowels. Within Phoenician, it was restricted to standard Phoenician. This palatalization occurred only in one set of pronominal suffixes and the causative particle; it did not spread to the third person independent pronouns.

The correspondences of final *-át. 18a.

BYBLIAN: No evidence. 278

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: *-át was preserved in absolute fem. sing. nouns (e.g., עלמת ['almôt] ''lass'' [Kilamu 8] < *-át < *-át and אלת ['ilôt] ''goddess'' [Arsl.T. 1:1] $< *-\hat{a}t < *-\hat{a}t$).

ARAMAIC: [â] in abs. fem. sing. nouns (e.g., לחידה "bad" [Sf. I A 261 and מאה "100" (Fekh. 20.20.21.221).

"rebellion" מרמת "rebellion" מרמת "rebellion" (Sf. III 22) and אאת "ewe" (Sf. I A 21). Yet neither noun contained an original ending *-át. מרמת is derived from *marmay + at > [marmât]. אחת probably developed from $ta^2 + t > [ta^2t]$. Neither form, then, constitutes an exception to the shift *- $\hat{a}t > [\hat{a}]$ in absolute feminine singular nouns.

SAMALIAN: lal in abs. fem. sing. nouns (e.g., חטה "wheat" [H 6; P 6.9] and שערה "barley" [H 6; P 6.9]).

AMMONITE: *-át was preserved in abs. fem. sing. nouns (e.g., גנת [gannat (?)] "garden" [Sir. 4] and אשחת "cistern" [Sir. 5]).

DEIR ALLA: *-át changed to n- [a] in the abs. fem. sing. noun (e.g., אנפה "heron" (18) and כהנה "priestess" (111)).

MOABITE: *-át was preserved in abs. fem. sing. nouns (e.g., בית "spectacle (?)" [Mesha 12] and המסלת "the highway" [Mesha 26]). EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: *-át had shifted to [a] in the abs. fem. sing, noun (e.g., הנקבה "the tunnel" [Shiloah 1], ברכה (the) pool" [Shiloah 5; Arad 28:7], and הרעה 'the evil thing' [Arad 40:15]).

To a certain extent, all the NWS dialects exhibit the tendency to shift final *- $\dot{a}t > [\dot{a}]$. This change appeared in Old Aramaic, Samalian, Deir Alla, and Hebrew. *-át was preserved in standard Phoenician, Ammonite, and Moabite. Since, however, the correspondence *át:[a] was not an exclusively shared innovation. 282 its appearance resulted from independent development or diffusion.

18b. The correspondences of *-at.

BYBLIAN: Final *-at was preserved in the pronoun האת [hu'at] (?) "he" (Yehimilk 2). There is no direct evidence for *-at of the third person fem. sing. perfect; in later Byblian, however, it had changed to [ã]²⁸³ (e.g., שמע [šam(a)^cã] "she heard" [Yehawmilk 3.81).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: *-at was preserved in the pronoun דמת [humat (?)] "they" (Kilamu 13; Karatepe A I 17). It was not preserved in third person fem. sing. perfect verbs (e.g., 1?1 craft) [kar(a)tā] "she made a covenant" [Arsl.T. 1:10] < *karatat).

ARAMAIC: *-at was preserved in the third person fem. sing. perfect, as for example שבת "it returned" (Sf. III 25).

SAMALIAN: *-at was preserved in third person fem. sing, perfect verbs, as for example בברת "it was abundant" and אכלת "it ate" (P 9).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: *-at was preserved in the third person fem. sing. perfect verb, as for example חרפת "it reproached" (1 7/8) and הקרקת "it chased" (1 15). Adverbial *-at, however, became [a], as in שמה "there, thither" (II 13.14) < *tamat. 284

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: *-at changed into [a] in adverbs (e.g., "there" [Lach. 4:8; Arad 24:20]), and presumably in the third person plural

independent pronoun (BH המה) and the third person fem, sing, perfect (although there is no epigraphic evidence).

In final weak verbs, however, final *t of the third person fem. sing, perfect was preserved, as in הית [hāvât] "there was" (Shiloah 3). 285 The *t was preserved in this form, in contrast to other examples of *-at > $[\bar{a}]$, because it was preceded by a long, contracted vowel. The form איז developed from *havaya-t > *hayayat > [hāyât]. 286 Cf. the Old Aramaic fem. sing. nominal form in [at].

*-at of the third person fem. sing. perfect was preserved in Old Aramaic, Samalian, and the Deir Alla dialect. In standard Phoenician, Hebrew, and later Byblian, it shifted to [a]. The deictic/adverbial ending *-at, however, was preserved in Byblian and standard Phoenician, in contrast to its change to [a] in Deir Alla and Hebrew. Thus, like the correspondences of *-át, *-at probably developed independently in the different NWS dialects.

19. Case endings.

BYBLIAN: Final short vowels may have been preserved in this dialect. The evidence, however, is indirect. The third person masc. sing, perfect of final weak verbs ended in .. For example, zer "he built" (Yehimilk 1: Shiptibaal 1) was probably pronounced [banava]. with final [a];²⁸⁷ since final short vowels did not drop in verbal forms, it is inferred that they did not drop in nouns.²⁸⁸ Further, the nota accusativi does not appear in these texts. Since the appearance of this particle coincided with the loss of final short vowels—in order to distinguish between subjective and objective nouns after the morphological distinction disappeared²⁸⁹—the absence of this particle in Old Byblian suggests that a grammatical distinction between the cases was preserved.

There is no evidence of the presence of plural case distinctions. The masc, plural morpheme, p., does not indicate whether a vocalic distinction was preserved between nominative and oblique cases.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: It is unclear whether cases were preserved in this dialect. On the one hand, an orthographic distinction was maintained between "my" when attached to masc./fem. sing. nominative/accusative nouns and when attached to the corresponding genitive noun; in the former case, the orthography is $-\emptyset$ [\bar{i}] while in the latter it is > [iya (?)]. Similarly in the masc./fem. third person sing. suffixes, - \(\text{\gamma} \) vs. \(\text{\gamma} \). This orthography suggests that case distinctions, at least in the singular noun, were preserved.²⁹⁰

On the other hand, the appearance of the nota accusativi my in Karatepe A I 3, III 3, etc., suggests that the distinction between nominative and accusative nouns was lost. Further, the thesis concerning the orthographic distinction between nominative/accusative and genitive sing, nouns may be unsound. Instead of reflecting the actual pronunciation of the language, the orthography may have been historical. In other words, by the time of these texts, the Phoenician orthography could have been standardized and may have reflected mere orthographic convention instead of actual pronunciation;291 cf. the spelling of the PN [Kilamû] as כלמו < *-muwa. It remains ambiguous, then, whether final short vowels were or were not pronounced.292

As in Byblian, there is no evidence for the distinction between nominative and oblique plural nouns in standard Phoenician.

ARAMAIC: Final short vowels were probably lost in Old Aramaic. The absolute fem. sing, nominal ending π - [ā] could have arisen only after the final vowel of *-átu was lost, producing *-át, and finally [â]. 293 Note also the appearance of the nota accusativi אית.

SAMALIAN: Case vowels were present in masc. plural nouns but not in masc./fem. sing. or fem. plural nouns.²⁹⁴ In masc. plural nouns, the nominative ended in [û] (e.g., מלכר "kings" [P 17] and אלהור "gods" [H 2]), and the oblique case ended in [i] (e.g., באבני "with stones" [H 31.31] and קרם. אלהי "before the gods" [P 23]). The loss of the short case vowels, however, is demonstrated by the form of the abs. fem. sing. nominal ending $\pi - \langle *-\acute{a}t \rangle < *-\acute{a}tu$ and also by the transcription of the PN Pa-na-am-mu-u (ANET³, pp. $282, 283) < *-muwa.^{295}$

AMMONITE: No evidence. The preservation of final *-át in abs. fem. sing, nouns does not necessarily indicate the presence of final short vowels, since *-át is an intermediate stage between *-átu (as in Ugaritic and Akkadian) and [a] (as in Hebrew, etc.).

DEIR ALLA: Final short vowels were probably lost in the Deir Alla dialect. The abs. fem. sing. nominal ending [a] could have arisen only after final short vowels were lost.

MOABITE: There were probably no case endings in Moabite. since the nota accusativi was frequently employed.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Case endings were lost throughout Hebrew, as the appearance of the nota accusativi and the abs. fem. sing. nominal morpheme π - < *-\dark -\dark tu indicate.

The only possible exception to the loss of case vowels in Hebrew is the form ירחנ in the Gezer Calendar, II. 1.1.2. Ginsberg. 296 for example, suggested that the final waw marked [o], derived from *ā of the nominative dual ending. Garbini²⁹⁷ believed that the waw marked the old nominative plural [ū]. Yet the ending of this noun remains enigmatic. No certain conclusions can be based on this form alone.

Case endings were, for the most part, lost throughout the firstmillennium NWS dialects. 298 Only Byblian and, to a lesser extent, standard Phoenician may have preserved case endings in the singular noun; they do not, however, appear to have retained case distinctions in the masc, plural. In the opposite manner, Samalian preserved case distinctions in the masc. plural, although the singular endings were lost. All other contemporary NWS dialects had lost both singular and plural case endings.

Notes to Chapter 2

- 1. See Zellig S. Harris, Development of the Canaanite Dialects, American Oriental Series, vol. 16 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1939). p. 35; and Cyrus H. Gordon, UT §5.6. The correspondence *d:z in UT 75 (= CTA 12) constitutes a special problem. See Joshua Blau, "On Problems of Polyphony and Archaism in Ugaritic Spelling," JAOS 88 (1968): 525.
- 2. Other examples are listed by Rainer Degen, Altaramäische Grammatik der Inschriften des 10.-8. Jh. v. Chr., Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, vol. 38/3 (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1969), §13.
- 3. Eduard Y. Kutscher, "Aramaic," in Linguistics in South West Asia and North Africa, Current Trends in Linguistics, vol. 6 (The Hague/Paris: Mouton, 1970), p. 353.
- 4. Louis D. Levine, Two Neo-Assyrian Stelae from Iran, Royal Ontario Museum Art and Archaeology Occasional Paper 23 (Toronto: The Royal Ontario Museum, 1972), p. 18 (col. 11, 1. 4).
- 5. Wherever possible, cuneiform evidence will be cited to Pritchard's ANET.
- 6. See the discussions by Manfred Weippert. "Menahem von Israel und seine Zeitgenossen in einer Steleninschrift des assyrischen Königs Tiglathpilesar III. aus dem Iran," ZDPV 89 (1973): 46-47 n. 83; and Richard C. Steiner, The Case for Fricative-Laterals in Proto-Semitic, American Ori-

- ental Series, vol. 59 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1977), pp. 38–41. Cf. Stephen A. Kaufman, "The Enigmatic Adad-Milki," *JNES* 37 (1978): 105 with n. 20.
- 7. Degen, Grammatik, §13, Anm.; and John C. L. Gibson, Textbook of Syrian Semitic Inscriptions, 3 vols. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1971–1982), 2;39. Cf. Blau, "Weak' Phonetic Change and the Hebrew sîn," Hebrew Annual Review 1 (1977): 69–70 with n. 6.
- 8. George A. Cooke, NSI, pp. 170–171; Gibson, Textbook, 2:76; and Steiner, Fricative-Laterals, p. 150. See below, no. 3.
- 9. So Kutscher, in *Linguistics in South West Asia*. p. 354; and Paul-E. Dion, *La langue de Ya³udi* (Waterloo, Ont.: The Corporation for the Publication of Academic Studies in Religion in Canada, 1974), p. 97.
 - 10. Dion, La langue, p. 97.
 - 11. Kutscher, in Linguistics in South West Asia, p. 354.
- 12. For example, Akkadian ṣâḥu, Eth. [śaḥaqa], BH צַחק/שֶחק, Arab. dḥk, Chr.-Pal./Jewish Aramaic חיך, החיך, and חיך, Cf. Steiner, Fricative-Laterals, pp. 111–120.
- Felice Israel, "The Language of the Ammonites," OLP 10 (1979):
 144.
- 14. The complete list is given by J. Hoftijzer, "Interpretation and Grammar," in Aramaic Texts from Deir 'Alla, ed. J. Hoftijzer and G. van der Kooij. Documenta et Monumenta Orientis Antiqui, vol. 19 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1976), p. 283; and Jo Ann Carlton (Hackett), "Studies in the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Allā' (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1980), p. 135 (with significant differences). Cf. Joseph Naveh, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," IEJ 29 (1979): 135–136; and Jonas C. Greenfield, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," JSS 25 (1980): 250–251, who doubt this correspondence. Yet their only substantive counterproposal—to derive מון לווי (111) from *lqh "to take"—does not fit the context. See Helga and Manfred Weippert, "Die 'Bileam'-Inschrift von Tell Dēr 'Allā," ZDPV 98 (1982): 98.
- 15. See Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 36, 164–165; and idem, "The Dialect of the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Alla," Or 53 (1984): 61, for the logical possibilities.
- 16. Harris, *Development*, p. 36; and idem, *A Grammar of the Phoenician Language*, American Oriental Series, vol. 8 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1936), p. 20.
 - 17. See Degen, Grammatik, §11, for the list.
- Cf. Hans H. Schaeder, Iranische Beiträge I, Schriften der Königsberger Gelehrten Gesellschaft, Geisteswissenschaftliche Klasse, vol. 6, pt. 5 (Halle an der Saale: Max Niemeyer, 1930), pp. 242–246, esp. p. 244.
- 19. H. L. Ginsberg, "Psalms and Inscriptions of Petition and Acknowledgement," in *Louis Ginzberg Jubilee Volume*, 2 vols. (New York: The American Academy for Jewish Research, 1945), 1:161 n. 8; and Joseph A. Fitzmyer, *The Aramaic Inscriptions of Sefire*, Biblica et Orientalia, vol. 19 (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1967), p. 150.
- See Dion, La langue, p. 93; and Johannes Friedrich. PPG §8*a, for a complete list.

- So, for example, D. H. Müller, "Die altsemitischen Inschriften von Sendschirli," WZKM 7 (1893): 115–116.
- 22. Friedrich, PPG §8*a; and idem, "Zur Stellung des Jaudischen in der nordwestsemitischen Sprachgeschichte," in Studies in Honor of Benno Landsberger... 1965, Assyriological Studies, vol. 16 (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1965), p. 427.
- 23. N. Avigad, "Ammonite and Moabite Seals," in Near Eastern Archaeology in the Twentieth Century, ed. James A. Sanders (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1970), p. 288; Pierre Bordreuil, "Inscriptions sigillaires ouest-sémitiques. I. Epigraphie ammonite," Syria 50 (1973): 185, no. 25; and Ruth Hestrin and Michal Dayagi-Mendels, Inscribed Seals (Jerusalem: Israel Museum, 1979), p. 129. Israel (OLP 10 [1979]: 144 with n. 5) also cited the PN עוראל (Francesco Vattioni, "I sigilli ebraici," Bibl 50 [1969]: 377, no. 170).

There is no evidence for the merger of *d and \lnot , against Garbini's claim (Le lingue semitiche. Studi di storia linguistica [Naples: Istituto orientale di Napoli, 1972]. p. 100). The PN \lnot is probably composed of the elements \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot Albright has already noted ("Notes on Ammonite History," in Miscellanea Biblica B. Ubach, ed. R. M. Díaz. Scripta et Documenta, vol. 1 [Barcelona: Imprenta-Escuela, 1953], p. 134 n. 19), not of the relative *d \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot "who is in Lbs" suggested by Garbini. In any case, the Ammonite relative particle was \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot \lnot (see Chapter 3, no. 3).

- 24. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 135.
- 25. So, for example, Naveh, *IEJ* 29 (1979): 136. See above, Chapter 1, p. 11.
 - 26. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, p. 283.
- 27. See the new reading proposed by Kaufman, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," BASOR 239 (1980): 73.
- 28. See, for example, the discussion of פחזי (II 8) in Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 97-98.
- G. R. Driver, "Seals from 'Amman and Petra," QDAP 11 (1944):
- 30. Cf. Israel, "Miscellanea idumea," Rivista biblica italiana 27 (1979): 180.
- 31. Blau, "Some Difficulties in the Reconstruction of 'Proto-Hebrew' and 'Proto-Canaanite," in *In Memoriam Paul Kahle*, ed. Matthew Black and Georg Fohrer. BZAW, vol. 103 (Berlin: A. Töpelmann, 1968), p. 39. See also Franz Rosenthal, *AF*, pp. 69–70 n. 2; and Albrecht Goetze, "Accent and Vocalism in Hebrew," *JAOS* 59 (1939): 451 n. 64.
- 32. See Hans Kurath, Studies in Area Linguistics (Bloomington/London: Indiana University Press, 1972), p. 157.
- 33. For example, B-L §2g'; and Hans Bauer, Zur Frage der Sprachmischung im Hebräischen. Eine Erwiderung (Halle an der Saale: Max Niemeyer, 1924), pp. 31-33. Cf. Garbini, Il semitico di nord-ovest, Quaderni della sezione linguistica degli Annali, vol. 1 (Naples: Istituto universitario orientale di Napoli, 1960), pp. 32-33.

- 34. See the summary in Harris, Development, p. 40.
- 35. Degen, Grammatik, §11.
- 36. Pontus Leander, Laut- und Formenlehre des Ägyptisch-Aramäischen (1928; reprint ed., Hildesheim: Georg Olms, 1966), §2a.
- 37. So, tentatively, Dion, La langue, p. 94. Alternatively, the element may be cognate with Arabic [darra], as in ארי "my enemies" (H 30).
 - 38. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, pp. 283-284.
 - 39. Ibid., p. 197.
- 40. So Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 40, 69 with n. 33; Baruch A. Levine, "The Deir 'Alla Plaster Inscriptions," *JAOS* 101 (1981): 197; and P. Kyle McCarter, "The Balaam Texts from Deir 'Allā: The First Combination," *BASOR* 239 (1980): 51, 54.
 - 41. Harris, Development, pp. 40-41.
 - 42. B-L §2g'; and Bauer, Zur Frage, p. 33.
 - 43. Friedrich, "Zum Phönizisch-Punischen," ZS 2 (1923): 2-4.
 - 44. Harris, Grammar, pp. 3-4 with n. 15, 20 n. 3.
- 45. Ali Abou-Assaf, Pierre Bordreuil, and Alan R. Millard, La statue de Tell Fekherye et son inscription bilingue assyro-araméenne (Paris: Editions Recherche sur les civilisations, 1982), pp. 43-44, 60.
- 46. Kaufman, "Reflections on the Assyrian-Aramaic Bilingual from Tell Fakhariyeh," Maaray 3 (1982): 146-147.
- 47. Presuming, of course, that עתרסמך was not an inherited spelling of the name.
 - 48. See the list in Dion, La langue, pp. 93-94.
- Friedrich, PPG §8*a; and idem, in Studies . . . Landsberger, p. 427.
- 50. Further examples are given by Israel, *OLP* 10 (1979): 144, to which add: PN בקש (seal of בקש [Hestrin and Dayagi-Mendels, *Inscribed Seals*, p. 130]) and PN שעל (seals of מתא [in ibid., p. 137], פלטי (ibid., p. 136], and שעל [ibid., p. 135]).
- 51. Further examples listed by Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 136; and Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, p. 283.
 - 52. Cf. Israel, Rivista biblica italiana 27 (1979): 180.
- 53. E. A. Speiser, "The Shibboleth Incident (Judges 12:6)," BASOR 85 (1942): 10-13.
- 54. Harris, *Development*, pp. 40-41, 62-64, and the chronological chart.
 - 55. Cf. p. 26 above.
 - 56. Harris, Development, pp. 43-44.
 - 57. Additional examples in Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §§79a-79b.
- 58. Harris, Grammar, p. 35. Cf. P. Swiggers, "[Review of Segert, Grammar]," Lingua 50 (1980): 383.
- 59. The problem, however, lies in the development of $*\hat{a}$ in later, post-Christian Aramaic dialects in Syria-Palestine. The shift $*\hat{a} > [\delta]$, as found in Phoenician and Hebrew, is characteristic of western Aramaic dialects—notably western Syriac, Ma'lūla, and Christian Palestinian Aramaic. Several explanations are possible. In the early period, $*\hat{a}$ was retained in Aramaic-

speaking areas and only later changed to [o] under the influence of the older Canaanite vowel-shift (through spread or borrowing) or through independent, parallel development. Another possibility is that, since the Aramaic shift $*\hat{a} > [\hat{b}]$ is restricted to western dialects, there was already a dialectal boundary between western (* $\hat{a} > [\hat{o}]$) and eastern ([\hat{a}]) regions in the early period. Proof is lacking until further evidence can be adduced to support one explanation. See Chaim Rabin, "The Origin of the Subdivisions of Semitic," in Hebrew and Semitic Studies Presented to Godfrey Rolles Driver, ed. D. Winton Thomas and W. D. McHardy (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1963), p. 109; and Blau, in In Memoriam Paul Kahle, p. 36.

- 60. See Benno Landsberger, Sam'al. Studien zur Entdeckung der Ruinenstaette Karatene. Veröffentlichungen der türkischen historischen Gesellschaft, Series 7, no. 16 (Ankara: Türkische historische Gesellschaft, 1948), p. 22 n. 43, for complete citations.
- 61. See also Ran Zadok, "West Semitic Personal Names in the Murašû Documents," BASOR 231 (1978): 74.
 - 62. See below, no. 6.
 - 63. Harris, Development, pp. 43-45, 61-62.
- 64. Cf. Israel, "Un'ulteriore attestazione dell'evoluzione fonetica $\bar{a} >$ ō nel semitico di nord-ovest," RSF 7 (1979): 159-161; and Ziony Zevit, Matres Lectionis in Ancient Hebrew Epigraphs, ASOR Monograph Series, vol. 2 (Cambridge: ASOR, 1980), p. 25 n. 44.
- 65. See the list in Simo Parpola, Neo-Assyrian Toponyms, AOAT, vol. 6 (Kevelaer/Neukirchen-Vluyn: Butzon & Bercker/Neukirchener Verlag des Erziehungsvereins, 1970), pp. 16, 76.
- 66. Cf. Stanislav Segert, A Grammar of Phoenician and Punic (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1976), §21.91.
- 67. Sabatino Moscati, ed., An Introduction to the Comparative Grammar of the Semitic Languages, Porta Linguarum Orientalium, New Series, vol. 6 (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1969), §8.70.
 - 68. Zadok, "Historical and Onomastic Notes," WO 9 (1977): 41.
- 69. Blau, "Short Philological Notes on the Inscription of Meśa"," Maaray 2 (1980): 147-148.
- 70. I. J. Gelb, "La lingua degli Amoriti," Atti della Accademia nazionale dei Lincei. Rendiconti della Classe di scienze morali, storiche e filologiche, Series VIII, vol. 13/3-4 (1958): 157 (§3.3.6.2.1).
 - 71. Carl Brockelmann, GvG 1:§262e.
- 72. Bauer, "Die hebräischen Eigennamen als sprachliche Erkenntnisquelle," ZAW 48 (1930): 74.
 - 73. Harris, Development, p. 44.
- 74. Contraction is marked by a circumflex (1), except in the case of $[\delta] < *awa/*aya/*a'$ (cf. $[\delta] < *aw$). A macron (*) marks originally long, or stress-lengthened, vowels.
- 75. Harris, Grammar, p. 31; idem, Development, p. 73; and Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §80b.
- 76. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §80a; cf. Harris, Development, pp. 56-57. For bali, see Brockelmann, GvG 1:\25252ba; and Rosenthal, "[Review of Gordon, Ugaritic Grammar]," Or 11 (1942): 176-177, 177 n. 2.

- 77. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §78d, with other examples.
- 78. Harris, Grammar, p. 31 n. 17.
- 79. Possible exceptions may be Pun. anech "I" (Poen. 995) (see Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §79c) and corathi "I called" (Poen. 930) (Harris, Grammar, p. 31 n. 17).
 - 80. See n. 63 above.
- 81. References given by Frank M. Cross, "Leaves from an Epigraphist's Notebook," *CBQ* 36 (1974): 494 n. 50. Cf. idem, "Notes on the Ammonite Inscription from Tell Sīrān," *BASOR* 212 (1973): 14 n. 17.
- 82. Cf. the Murašu PN *Padā-yaw*, cited by Cross, *CBQ* 36 (1974): 494 n. 55, and BH PNs פדהאל (Num. 34:28) and פדהאנור (Num. 1:10, 2:20, etc.).
- 83. For a different explanation, see Cross, *BASOR* 212 (1973): 13; and Zadok, *WO* 9 (1977): 53–55.
- 84. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§§37fβ.γ. Cf. Gotthelf Bergsträsser, "Mitteilungen zur hebräischen Grammatik," OLZ 26 (1923): 255. See also the Palestinian El-Amarna forms ru-šu-nu "our head" (EA 264:18) and sú-ú-nu "sheep" (EA 263:12). The [ō]-vowel in BH יאכל "he will eat" and יאכל "he will seize," however, is of a different origin.
- 85. B-L §§25b-c. See also Harris, Development, p. 73, and no. 13 below.
- 86. Harris, ibid., p. 61. Other examples are cited by Harris, *Grammar*, pp. 25, 34–35, and by Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §§78a.c (exceptions listed on p. 30 n. 1).
 - 87. See Harris, Development, pp. 60-62.
- 88. Cf. P. Kyle McCarter and Robert B. Coote, "The Spatula Inscription from Byblos," BASOR 212 (1973): 20 n. 17.
- 89. Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*², p. 30 n. 1: Segert, *Grammar*, §§54.212.1-2; and Swiggers, *Lingua* 50 (1980): 383.
- 90. Ginsberg, "[Review of Harris, Grammar]," JBL 56 (1937): 139; Brockelmann, "[Review of Harris, Grammar]," OLZ 40 (1937): 528; and Harris, Development, p. 72.
 - 91. See above, no. 5.
 - 92. Harris, Development. p. 61 (citing only [Mô'ab]).
 - 93. Ginsberg, JBL 56 (1937): 139.
- 94. Harris, *Grammar*, p. 37; idem, *Development*, pp. 29–32; and Frank M. Cross and David N. Freedman, *EHO*, pp. 13–19.
 - 95. Harris, Development, pp. 29-30, 31.
- 96. Ginsberg, "The Northwest Semitic Languages," in *Patriarchs*, ed. B. Mazar, The World History of the Jewish People, vol. 2 ([New Brunswick, N.J.]: Rutgers University Press, 1970), p. 108; and Cross and Freedman, *EHO*, p. 19.
 - 97. Cross and Freedman, EHO, pp. 14, 15.
 - 98. See below, nos. 15, 19, and Chapter 3, nos. 23b, 23h.
 - 99. See Degen, Grammatik, §7.
- 100. On the form of אדה "kid" (Sf. II A 2), צדה "owl" (Sf. I A 33), and "lion" (Sf. II A 9), cited by Degen (*Grammatik*, §19b) as examples of monophthongization, see no. 11 below. For לילה "night" (Sf. I A 12),

see BH and Deir Alla ללה "night" (see pp. 117, 158, n. 253). The final alleged example of monophthongization in Old Aramaic. "these" (Sf. I A 7.7.38, etc.), posited by Kutscher (A History of Aramaic. Part 1: Old Aramaic, Jaudic, Official Aramaic [Biblical Aramaic excepted] [Jerusalem: Akadamon, 1972], p. 12 [in Hebrew]) does not necessarily end in an original diphthong (see Chapter 3, no. 2c, especially the alternate explanation).

- 101. Degen, "Die Präfixkonjugationen des Altaramäischen," in XVII. Deutscher Orientalistentag . . . Würzhurg. Vorträge, ed. Wolfgang Voigt. ZDMG Supplementa. vol. 1. pt. 2 (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1969), pp. 701-706; and idem, Grammatik, §19. See below, Chapter 3, no. 23d.
- 102. If, however, these imperfects are derived from *yabniyu/*yabniy, this exception disappears.
- 103. Fitzmyer, Sefire, pp. 116, 146; Degen, Grammatik, p. 62 n. 39a; Kutscher, A History of Aramaic, p. 12; and KAI 2:269-270.
 - 104. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§252b0.
- See, however, Klaus Beyer, "[Review of Degen, Grammatik],"
 ZDMG 120 (1970): 200.
 - 106. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, pp. 34, 46.
- 107. משב "throne" (H 8.15, etc.; P 2) is a different form altogether. See Ginsberg, "The Classification of the North-West Semitic Languages," in Akten des vierundzwanzigsten internationalen Orientalisten-Kongresses . . . 1957, ed. Herbert Franke (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1959), p. 257; and idem, in Patriarchs, p. 119. See also below, Chapter 3, no. 21a.
- 108. See Friedrich, *PPG* §§2*,6*: and Dion, *La langue*, pp. 57–58, 72–80, for further examples (although with different analyses and conclusions).
- 109. Friedrich, PPG §4*; Dion, La langue, pp. 72-73; and idem. "The Language Spoken in Ancient Sam'al," JNES 37 (1978): 116 n. 9.
- 110. Cf. Merton E. Sherman, "Systems of Hebrew and Aramaic Orthography: an Epigraphic History of the Use of matres lectionis in Non-biblical Texts to circa A.D. 135" (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1966), p. 32 n. 61.
 - 111. Harris, Development, p. 9 with nn. 14 and 15.
 - 112. See Dion, La langue, pp. 122-123.
 - 113. See below, no. 19, and Chapter 3, no. 6a.
 - 114. Dion, La langue, pp. 145-148.
- 115. Dion, "Notes d'épigraphie ammonite," RB 82 (1975): 27. For the seal, see Garbini, Le lingue, p. 99 n. 13.
 - 116. For the masculine plural construct ending, see Chapter 3, no. 6b.
- 117. Sturtevant, *Pronunciation of Greek and Latin*, pp. 142, 148, cited in Harris, *Grammar*, p. 37 n. 43.
- 118. Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, pp. 284-285, 222 n. 104; Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 50 n. 8; and idem, *Or* 53 (1984): 63.
- 119. Additional examples given by Hostijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, pp. 284–285; and by Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 137–138.
- 120. Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, p. 285; and Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 138.

- 121. See above, pp. 35, 69 n. 101.
- 122. See above, n. 102.
- 123. Cf. Rosenthal, "[Review of Cross and Freedman, EHO]," JAOS 73 (1953): 47; and Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 42.
- 124. See the lists in Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 43. Cf. Segert, "Die Sprache der moabitischen Königsinschrift," ArOr 29 (1961): 212–213.
 - 125. On Qôs, see Israel, Rivista biblica italiana 27 (1979): 184-191.
 - 126. Ibid., p. 186.
- 127. B. Oded, "Egyptian References to the Edomite Deity Qaus," AUSS 9 (1971): 47-50.
- 128. Beyer, Althebräische Grammatik (Göttingen: Vandenhoeck & Ruprecht, 1969), p. 29.
 - 129. Harris, Development, pp. 29-32.
- 130. Published by N. Tzori, "A Hebrew Ostracon from Beth-Shean," Yediot 25 (1961): 145-146 (in Hebrew).
- 131. Cf. André Lemaire, *Inscriptions hébraïques*, Tome 1: *Les ostraca*, Littératures anciennes du Proche-Orient, vol. 9/1 (Paris: Les Editions du Cerf, 1977), p. 254.
 - 132. See above, p. 12.
- 133. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 48 with n. 20a. Cf. Zevit, Matres Lectionis, p. 15.
- 134. The Beer-Sheba ostraca were published by Yohanan Aharoni, "The Hebrew Inscriptions," in *Beer-Sheba 1. Excavations at Tel Beer-Sheba*, 1969–1971 Seasons, ed. Y. Aharoni (Tel Aviv: Tel Aviv University Institute of Archaeology, 1973), pp. 71–78. Cf. the reading by Lemaire, *Inscriptions*, pp. 271–272.
 - 135. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 57.
- 136. Another possible exception is ער in a text from Tell Ajrud (published by Zeev Meshel, "Kuntilat 'Ajrud, 1975–1976," IEJ 27 [1977]: 53). If this is the same word as ער "city" in Arad 24:16/17 and Lach. 4:7, 18:2, a diphthong may have contracted. In this case, however, the original diphthong was probably *iy (Bergsträsser, Hebräische Grammatik, 2 vols. [Leipzig: F. C. W. Vogel, 1918–1929], 1:§17i), not *ay (cf. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 55). See also wn "man" (Shiloah 2.2.4; cf., e.g., Sf. II B 16 and H 34) vs. איש "man" (Arad 40:7.8; Lach, 3:9/10).

On קל "voice" (Shiloah 2), see קל "voice" (Sf. I A 29; and Deir Alla I 8), and Paul Joüon, *Grammaire de l'hébreu biblique* (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1923), p. 189 n. 3.

- 137. See, for example, Zevit, Matres Lectionis, pp. 19, 24.
- 138. Lemaire, Inscriptions, p. 272.
- 139. For example, Shiloah 3; Lach. 2:3, etc.; Arad 1:4, etc.
- 140. The reading אסם [ה], accepted by KAI (2:200), is probably incorrect. In its stead, read אסם, following Naveh, Cross, Lemaire, and Pardee.
- 141. See Theodor Nöldeke, Neue Beiträge zur semitischen Sprachwissenschaft (Strassburg: Karl J. Trübner, 1910), pp. 133-135, for the comparative evidence.
 - 142. For Hebrew, *á:[a], see no. 7 above.

- 143. Ginsberg, "Notes on the Lachish Documents," *BJPES* 3 (1935): 79 (in Hebrew); William F. Albright, "Ostracon C 1101 of Samaria," *PEFQS* 1936: 215 n. 1; and Cross and Freedman, *EHO*, pp. 50, 53 with n. 40.
- 144. Cf. Anson F. Rainey, "The Word 'Day' in Ugaritic and Hebrew," Leshonenu 36 (1972): 187–189 (in Hebrew); and Zevit, Matres Lectionis, pp. 21, 24.
 - 145. Cf. Ginsberg, in Patriarchs, p. 108.
 - 146. Or the form may be derived from *'ad-at.
- 147. Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §58b; *KAI* 2:5; and Albright, "The Phoenician Inscriptions of the Tenth Century B.c. from Byblus," *JAOS* 67 (1947): 157 n. 39.
- 148. The extent of assimilation of *nun* in final *nun* verbs is uncertain. Since כת "I was" is the only example of this particular assimilation in standard Phoenician during this period, additional examples are needed to ensure that this assimilation was regular. Not only is the verb "to be" generally irregular in many languages, but different verbs behaved differently in this regard (cf. BH שכנתי vs. "I gave" vs. "I dwelt").
- 149. Additional examples are given by Degen, *Grammatik*, \$20; and Segert, *Altaramäische Grammatik* (Leipzig: VEB Verlag Enzyklopädie, 1975), \$3.7.5.
 - 150. Cf. Fitzmyer, Sefire, p. 187.
 - 151. Ibid., p. 150.
 - 152. Degen, Grammatik, p. 14 n. 63.
 - 153. See Segert, Grammatik, §5.7.4.1.
- 154. Dion, La langue, p. 107; and Landsberger, Sam'al, p. 69 n. 176 (one possibility).
 - 155. Gibson, Textbook 2:62.
- 156. J. Halévy, "Nouvel Examen des inscriptions de Zindjirli," RS 7 (1899): 345.
- 157. Rosenthal, Die Sprache der palmyrenischen Inschriften und ihre Stellung innerhalb des Aramäischen, MVÄG, vol. 41, pt. 1 (Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung, 1936), p. 60; Friedrich, PPG §19*; and Dion, La langue, pp. 105, 215. See below, Chapter 3, no. 19a.
 - 158. Israel, Rivista biblica italiana 27 (1979): 181 with n. 31.
 - 159. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, p. 292.
 - 160. Ibid., pp. 294, 300.
 - 161. Segert, ArOr 29 (1961): 211.
- 162. Crystal-M. Bennett, "Fouilles d'Umm el-Biyara. Rapport préliminaire," RB 73 (1966): 399; and Israel, Rivista biblica italiana 27 (1979): 180.
 - 163. Harris, Development, pp. 39-40.
 - 164. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§61a.
- 165. Goetze, "Is Ugaritic a Canaanite Dialect?" Lg. 17 (1941): 129 n. 20; and Blau, "Hebrew and North West Semitic: Reflections on the Classification of the Semitic Languages," Hebrew Annual Review 2 (1978): 35.
- "הכתובות הפניקיות מגבל ושלשלת התפתחותו של) 166. B. Maisler הכתובות הפניקיות מגבל ושלשלת התפתחותו של) 166. B. Maisler הכתובות הפניקי-העברי", Leshonenu 14 [1946]: 173) cited some non-

Phoenician examples of this phenomenon; see also Friedrich and Röllig, PPG^2 , p. 39 n. 3. I know of no other examples of this particular assimilation in the NWS epigraphic texts.

- 167. See n. 148. In Ugaritic as well, *nun* did not assimilate in this position (Gordon, *UT* §9.45).
- 168. Comparative evidence indicates that the root was originally *qtl (as in Arabic, Samalian, and Sfire-Aramaic); *qtl became *qtl by assimilation of the taw to the emphatic qoph, as in Hebrew and Imperial Aramaic (see Brockelmann, GvG 1:§54h). From the intermediate *qtl, the qoph dissimilated to kaph in contiguity to the following emphatic, thus: *qtl > *qtl > 0.0000.
 - 169. Segert, Grammatik, §3.7.2.2.2.
- 170. Nöldeke, Mandäische Grammatik (1875; reprint ed., Darmstadt: Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 1964), §42.
 - 171. Kutscher, in Linguistics in South West Asia, p. 365.
- 172. Ibid.; and Greenfield, "Dialect Traits in Early Aramaic," Leshonenu 32 (1968): 364 (in Hebrew).
- 173. Ginsberg, in *Akten* . . . 1957, p. 256; and idem, in *Patriarchs*, p. 119.
- 174. Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, pp. 218, 283; André Caquot and André Lemaire, "Les textes araméens de Deir 'Alla," *Syria* 54 (1977): 201; Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 85, 135; and Weippert and Weippert, *ZDPV* 98 (1982): 100 n. 123.
- Kaufman, The Akkadian Influences on Aramaic, Assyriological Studies, vol. 19 (Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press, 1974), p. 122.
- 176. Harris, *Grammar*, pp. 33-34; idem, *Development*, p. 80; and Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §§75b, 96b.
 - 177. Additional examples are given by Harris, Grammar, pp. 88-90.
 - 178. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG2 §75b.
- 179. Thus, while the Akkadian spellings Ba-'a-lu/al- may be an attempt to represent consonantal ', the form Si-pí-it- exhibits true anaptyxis.
 - 180. Kutscher, A History of Aramaic, p. 13.
 - 181. For *iy > [ê] (ה-) see Degen, Grammatik, §19b.
 - 182. See Brockelmann, GvG 1:§93u.
- 183. See Joseph L. Malone, "Wave Theory, Rule Ordering, and Hebrew-Aramaic Segolation," *JAOS* 91 (1971): 44–66, esp. pp. 59–62 (on the Hebrew phenomenon).
 - 184. KAI 2:227.
 - 185. Dion, La langue, pp. 60-61.
- 186. Arno Poebel, Das appositionell bestimmte Pronomen der 1. Pers. Sing. in den westsemitischen Inschriften und im Alten Testament, Assyriological Studies, vol. 3 (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1932), p. 47 n. 1 (implied derivation).
 - 187. Dion, La langue, pp. 56, 104, 124.
 - 188. So, for example, KAI 2:220 (one possibility).
 - 189. Bergsträsser, Hebräische Grammatik 1:§23h.

- 190. Speiser, "Secondary Developments in Semitic Phonology: An Application of the Principle of Sonority," *AJSL* 42 (1926): 145–169; and I. M. Diakonoff, "Problems of Root Structure in Proto-Semitic," *ArOr* 38 (1970): 453–480.
 - 191. Cf. Malone, JAOS 91 (1971): 66.
 - 192. B-L §61m€.
 - 193. So, for example, KAI 2:41; and Segert, Grammar, §36.511.
 - 194. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG2 §95a.
- 195. See Stanley Gevirtz, "On the Etymology of the Phoenician Particle אין," JNES 16 (1957): 125 n. 12.
- 196. Harris, *Grammar*, pp. 63-64; and Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §310.2. See below, Chapter 3, no. 3, and Chapter 4, no. 3a.
- 197. Degen, Grammatik, §22. See Goetze, JAOS 59 (1939): 444 n. 36 on the Proto-Semitic form of שש (א) "name."
 - 198. Kaufman, Maaray 3 (1982): 162.
 - 199. Cf. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, p. 85.
- 200. For example, Ginsberg, "Aramaic Studies Today," JAOS 62 (1942): 236 with n. 34; Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, p. 103 n. 361; and Dion, La langue, p. 116.
 - 201. Rosenthal, "[Review of Dion, La langue]," JBL 95 (1976): 154.
- 202. For the etymology of *sinepû*, see Goetze, "Number Idioms in Old Babylonian," *JNES* 5 (1946): 202 n. 81; and the bibliography cited by Kaufman, *Akkadian Influences*, p. 103 n. 361.
- 203. While some scholars have sought a prothetic aleph in יארקו "and favor" (H 13), it is preferable to read "and strength" (with Joseph P. Healey, "The Archaic Aramaic Inscriptions from Zinjirli" [Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1981], p. 9). This reading not only clears up the phonetic difficulty of the prothetic aleph but also provides better sense.
- 204. See recently M. Baldacci, "The Ammonite Text from Tell Siran and North-West Semitic Philology," VT 31 (1981): 367.
- 205. Henry O. Thompson and Fawzi Zayadine, "The Tell Siran Inscription," BASOR 212 (1973): 10, and "The Works of Amminadab," BA 37 (1974): 17 (one possibility).
 - 206. In ibid.
 - 207. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, p. 203 with n. 54.
 - 208. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§190, Anm. 2.
 - 209. Cf. Segert, ArOr 29 (1961): 219-220.
 - 210. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§82a.
- 211. Harris, *Grammar*, pp. 30-31; idem, *Development*, pp. 42-43, 73; and Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §13a.
- 212. For example, André Dupont-Sommer, Les inscriptions araméennes de Sfiré (stelès I et II), Extrait des Mémoires présentés par divers savants à l'Académie des Inscriptions et Belles-Lettres, vol. 15 (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1958), pp. 120–121; and KAI 2:263 (one possibility).
- 213. Degen, *Grammatik*, pp. 19 n. 76, 25, 66 n. 46, 71–72 n. 64; Fitzmyer, *Sefire*, pp. 91, 144 (one possibility); and Segert, *Grammatik*, §3.7.8.5.3 (one possibility).

- 214. Fitzmyer, Sefire, p. 70.
- 215. So Cooke, NSI, p. 167; KAI 2:219; and Dion, La langue, p. 213.
- 216. Although Dion (*La langue*, p. 120) also cited "head" < *ra's in P 12, the passage is broken and does not yield clear sense.
 - 217. Cf. Harris, Development, pp. 42-43.
 - 218. Ibid., p. 73 (one possibility); and Segert, ArOr 29 (1961): 219.
 - 219. Harris, Development, p. 73 (alternate derivation). Cf. B-L §25b.
- 220. Cf. Bauer, Zur Frage, pp. 29-30; and idem, "[Review of Dhorme, Langues]," OLZ 36 (1933): 318.
 - 221. So, for example, Cooke, NSI, p. 11.
- 222. Albright, "A Reëxamination of the Lachish Letters." BASOR 73 (1939): 21 n. 35. Cf. Gibson, Textbook 1:23.
 - 223. Harris, Development, pp. 42, 43, 73.
 - 224. See Brockelmann, GvG 1:845, for comparative evidence.
- 225. Albright, "Notes on Early Hebrew and Aramaic Epigraphy," *JPOS* 6 (1926): 79; Harris, *Grammar*. pp. 31–32; and Friedrich and Röllig. *PPG*² §94.
- 226. In Syriac, initial aleph + short vowel in an unaccented, open syllable is consistently reduced to zero, as for example [hāṭā] "sister" < *'aḥātā and [nāš] "man" < *'unāš (Nöldeke, Kurzgefasste syrische Grammatik, 2nd ed. [1898; reprint ed., Darmstadt; Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 1966], §32; and Brockelmann, GvG 1:§89lo).
 - 227. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§89lo.
- 228. Friedrich, PPG §9*; and Segert, Grammatik, §3.7.8.6.1. Cf. Dion, La langue, p. 118; and idem, JNES 37 (1978): 116.
- 229. So Albright, "Some Comments on the 'Ammân Citadel Inscription," *BASOR* 198 (1970): 39; and A. van Selms, "Some Remarks on the 'Ammân Citadel Inscriptions," *BiOr* 32 (1975): 8.
- 230. So, for example, William J. Fulco, "The 'Amman Citadel Inscription: A New Collation," BASOR 230 (1978): 42.
 - 231. Cf. Harris, Development, pp. 78-79.
- 232. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§104bα; and Garbini, Il semitico, p. 88 n. 1.
- 233. Harris, *Development*, pp. 56-57; and Segert, *Grammar*, §§35.731, 54.463. Cf. Goetze, *JAOS* 59 (1939): 450 n. 62, on the vocalization.
- 234. So read by KAI 2:46; and Albright, "An Aramaean Magical Text in Hebrew from the Seventh Century B.C.," BASOR 76 (1939): 9–10 with n. 36.
- 235. So Frank M. Cross and Richard J. Saley, "Phoenician Incantations on a Plaque of the Seventh Century B.C. from Arslan Tash in Upper Syria," BASOR 197 (1970): 46 with nn. 29–30; and Röllig, "Die Amulette von Arslan Taş," NESE 2 (1974): 19, 25.
 - 236. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, p. 34.
- See Rosenthal, *Die Sprache*, pp. 54–55. Cf. Dion, *La langue*, pp. 123–124; and idem, *JNES* 37 (1978): 116 n. 14.
- 238. Cf., e.g., Albright, BASOR 198 (1970): 38, and below, Chapter 4, no. 11.

- 239. For references see Naveh, "The Ostracon from Nimrud: An Ammonite Name-List," *Maarav* 2 (1980): 167 with nn. 31-34.
- 240. Avigad, "Two Ammonite Seals Depicting the *Dea Nutrix*," BASOR 225 (1977): 64-65.
 - 241. For this verbal form, see Chapter 3, no. 23c.
- 242. Nelson Glueck, "Ostraca from Elath," BASOR 82 (1941): 3-6; and idem, "Tell el-Kheleifeh Inscriptions," in Near Eastern Studies in Honor of William Foxwell Albright, ed. Hans Goedicke (Baltimore/London: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1971), p. 229.
- 243. See n. 162 above; and Israel, Rivista hiblica italiana 27 (1979): 183.
- 244. Lemaire (Inscriptions, p. 50), however, found the syncopated form -דבי in the PN בדינו (Sam. Ost. 58:1). Yet the reading is uncertain; Lemaire's b may be p. See Ivan T. Kaufman, "The Samaria Ostraca: A Study in Ancient Hebrew Palaeography," 2 vols. (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1966), 1:144.
 - 245. See above, n. 76.
- For possible hiphil imperfects in Old Byblian, see below, Chapter
 no. 16c.
- 247. Friedrich, "Kleinigkeiten zum Phönizischen, Punischen und Numidischen," ZDMG 114 (1964): 226; and Segert, Grammar, §51,233.2.
- 248. Cross and Freedman, "The Pronominal Suffixes of the Third Person Singular in Phoenician," *JNES* 10 (1951): 228–230. See below, Chapter 3, nos. 9b, 9d, 10b–10c.
- 249. Thomas O. Lambdin, "The Junctural Origin of the West Semitic Definite Article," in *Near Eastern Studies* . . . *Albright*, p. 328.
- 250. Cf., however, the later form יהאדמם "and those people" (Eshmunazor 22).
 - 251. Cf., for example, Dupont-Sommer, Sfiré, pp. 120-121.
- 252. Degen, *Grammatik*, pp. 19 n. 79, 25, 66 n. 46; and Segert, "Zur Schrift und Orthographie der altaramäischen Stelen von Sfire," *ArOr* 32 (1964): 121.
- 253. So Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 29; Segert, Grammatik, §3.8.1.7; and recently Fitzmyer, "The Phases of the Aramaic Language," in idem, A Wandering Aramean: Collected Aramaic Essays, SBLMS, vol. 25 (Missoula: Scholars Press, 1979), pp. 82–83 n. 95.
 - 254. Degen, Grammatik, §36 (end).
 - 255. See below, Chapter 3, no. 10b.
 - 256. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, p. 29.
- 257. Friedrich, *PPG* §25*b; *KAI* 2:219, 222; and Dion, *La langue*, pp. 121, 201.
- 258. Cf. Coote, "The Tell Siran Bottle Inscription," BASOR 240 (1980): 93; and Baldacci, VT 31 (1981): 367.
- 259. So Cross, "Epigraphic Notes on the Amman Citadel Inscription," BASOR 193 (1969): 19 with n. 15; and Raphael Kutscher, "A New Inscription from 'Amman," Qadmoniot 5 (1972): 28 (in Hebrew).
 - 260. Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 17.

261. Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, p. 293; and Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 146.

262. B-L §25r.

- 263. So read by Carlton (Hackett) ("Studies." p. 41) and Levine (JAOS 101 [1981]: 200). Hoftijzer (in Aramaic Texts, pp. 174, 236) and Caquot and Lemaire (Syria 54 [1977]: 205) read בלבב. in which case this suffix would disappear.
 - 264. Segert, ArOr 29 (1961): 218; and Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §18.1.
- 265. Harris, Development, p. 55. See already Nöldeke, Die Inschrift des Königs Mesa von Moab (Kiel: Schwers'sche Buchhandlung, 1870), p. 32.
 - 266. Rosenthal, JAOS 73 (1953): 47.
 - 267. Cross and Freedman, EHO, pp. 36, 43.
 - 268. Ibid., pp. 37 with n. 7, 38, 41.
 - 269. For this derivation, see below, Chapter 3, no. 10b.
- 270. See the discussion in Brockelmann, GvG 1:§§105fε, gε; and B-L §§25l-v.
 - 271. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 50.
- 272. See Harris, Development, p. 55; and Zevit, Matres Lectionis, p. 20.
- 273. For example, Brockelmann, GvG 1:§401; and B-L §251. Cf. Cross and Freedman, EHO, pp. 47, 54-55 with n. 42.
 - 274. Harris, Development, pp. 54-55; and Segert, Grammar, §35.61.
 - 275. See Chapter 3, nos. 9b. 10b.
- 276. See Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §§234–238, for additional examples.
- 277. It is possible that palatalization of he in the suffixes influenced the same change in the causative prefix. As Speiser has shown ("The 'Elative' in West-Semitic and Akkadian," JCS 6 [1952]: 81–82 with n. 4; and "The Terminative-Adverbial in Canaanite-Ugaritic and Akkadian," IEJ 4 [1954]: 108–115), the pronominal suffixes, causative prefix, and third person independent pronouns are etymologically related. A phonetic change which occurred in one of these elements may have spread to another. In this case, however, it did not spread to the independent pronouns. Cf. Garbini, Le lingue, p. 70.
- 278. The examples which Friedrich and Röllig (PPG² §227) adduced to show the preservation of *-át in Old Byblian—מחת "camp" and חדם "peace" (Ahirom 2)—are unclear. Because מחת is derived from a final weak root, the form may have developed from *maḥṇay-at > *maḥṇât > [maḥnōt]; a simple ending *-at may not be in question. Further, מון may have ended in *-t like BH *naḥt-, not in *-át.
 - 279. Degen, Grammatik, p. 49 n. 12.
- 280. Alternatively, אאת is derived from *ta'aw + at (cf. Arabic) > [ta'ât]. See, however, Chapter 3, no. 7.
- 281. Blau, "The Parallel Development of the Feminine Ending -at in Semitic Languages," *HUCA* 51 (1980): 27. See ibid., pp. 17–27 for a complete discussion, including Arabic evidence.

- 282. Ibid.
- 283. For the vocalization, see Charles R. Krahmalkov, "On the Third Feminine Singular of the Perfect in Phoenician-Punic," *JSS* 24 (1979): 25–28. See also n. 233 above.
 - 284. Cf. Ugaritic tmt "there, thither."
 - 285. Harris, Development, pp. 58-59.
 - 286. Bergsträsser, Hebräische Grammatik 2:§30r.
 - 287. See above, no. 15, and below, Chapter 3, no. 23b.
 - 288. But cf. Blau, in In Memoriam Paul Kahle, pp. 37-38.
 - 289. Idem, Maarav 2 (1980): 157.
 - 290. Segert, Grammar, §52.42.
 - 291. Harris, Grammar, pp. 36 n. 37, 61.
- 292. Cf. Segert, Grammar, §52.43; and A. M. Honeyman, "Phoenician Inscriptions from Karatepe," Le Muséon 61 (1948): 49 n. 10.
- 293. Friedrich, "Der Schwund kurzer Endvokale im Nordwestsemitischen," ZS 1 (1922): 10.
 - 294. Ibid., pp. 7-10.
 - 295. Dion, La langue, pp. 101-102.
- 296. Ginsberg, "[Review of Diringer, Le iscrizioni]," ArOr 8 (1936): 146.
- 297. Garbini, "Note sul 'calendario' di Gezer," AION 6 (1954-1956): 123-130.
- 298. Moscati, "Il semitico di nord-ovest," in Studi orientalistici in onore di Giorgio Levi Della Vida, Pubblicazioni dell'Istituto per l'Oriente, no. 52. 2 vols. (Rome: Istituto per l'Oriente, 1956), 2:217; idem, "Sulla posizione linguistica del semitico nord-occidentale," RSO 31 (1956): 231; and Harris, Development, p. 100.



MORPHOLOGY'

1a. The independent pronouns: The first person singular.

PHOENICIAN: איך (Kilamu I, etc.; Karatepe A I I, etc.). Evidence for this pronoun in Byblian appears only in later texts (e.g., Yehawmilk I; KAI II, etc.).

ARAMAIC: אנדו (Zkr A 2, etc.; Sf. II C 8, etc.; Br-Rkb 1:1.20, 2:1, etc.).

SAMALIAN: אנך (H 1; P 19). AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

моавіте: אעך (Mesha 1.2.21, etc.).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The only form of this pronoun in the epigraphic texts is אני (Arad 88:1; Beit Lei A I [partially restored]³); the final [i] was transferred from the first person sing. pronominal suffix.⁴ The other form frequently found in the Masoretic text, אנבי, does not appear in the epigraphic texts.

The West Semitic dialects exhibit two forms of the first person sing. independent pronoun. In Phoenician, Samalian, and Moabite,

it was אנץ: cf. Akk. anāku. The specifically West Semitic innovation, s *anā, appeared in Aramaic (אנד) and Hebrew (אנד); cf. Arabic and Eth. [anā]. The form of the pronoun in Ammonite, Deir Alla, and Edomite is unknown.

1b. The second person masculine singular.

PHOENICIAN: את Pattā], attested only in the later Phoenician inscriptions (KAI 13:3; Eshmunazor 4.20).

ARAMAIC: nx, as in Sf. III 11.20 and Nerab 1:5, 2:8. It is unclear, however, whether the pronoun was pronounced ['att], without a final vowel, or ['atta], with a final short vowel.⁶

SAMALIAN: אמה (H 33). As in Old Aramaic, the Samalian pronoun was pronounced either ['att] or ['atta]. Cf. the doublet יינדה ''this'' (P 22) and ייthis'' (H 1.14.16; P 1.20), where the final vowel was not represented in the orthography of the second form.

AMMONITE: No evidence.
DEIR ALLA: No evidence.
MOABITE: No evidence.
EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: אתה, in Beit Lei B, according to Naveh's reading. Whether this form does or does not appear in the epigraphic texts, however, is practically irrelevant, since the Masoretic q're consistently shows ['attā]. אתה, then, was the Hebraic form of the second person masc. sing. independent pronoun.

The second person mase, sing, independent pronoun is derived from *'antā. 10 In Phoenician and Hebrew, the pronoun was ['attā] < *'antā. The Samalian and Aramaic form, however, was either ['atta], or ['att], like the later Aramaic dialects. In either case, the alternate base *'antā appeared in Samalian and Old Aramaic. Both the Phoenician-Hebrew and Aramaic-Samalian pronouns were inherited.

1c. The third person masculine singular.

BYBLIAN: One pronoun was והא (Ahirom 2), pronounced [hu²a] and later, presumably, [hū(²)]. A second form of the pronoun, האת, also appears in Yehimilk 2.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: אָהֹא* [hū(³)], 11 as inferred from the later Phoenician texts.

ARAMAIC: אח [hū(²)] (Sf. I A 37. etc.; Br-Rkb 1:17, etc.).

Although Dupont-Sommer¹² has argued for a second form of this pronoun, זה, in Sf. III בי "and he will replace him," Milik¹³ and others¹⁴ suggested a more plausible word-division יימח be his successor." The only form of the third person masc. sing. independent pronoun in Old Aramaic was אח.

SAMALIAN: הא (H 22.30; P 11.22). The pronunciation of this form is uncertain.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: הא (1 1). 15 It is possible, however, that this word is the interjection "behold" [ha³]. 16

моавіте: הא (Mesha 6). The pronunciation was either [hū(²)] or [hu³a (?)].

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: הא (Arad 40:12). The *aleph* had probably lost its consonantal value, so that the pronoun was pronounced [hū], as in biblical Hebrew.¹⁷

The form is common to all first-millennium dialects which exhibit this pronoun. The dialects were differentiated according to its phonetic variants. Only Old Byblian had [hu³a], since final short vowels were probably not yet lost in this dialect; ¹⁸ in the other dialects, the form was [huˇa]. In the course of the first millennium, the final aleph was lost as well.

Whereas the common form of this pronoun was הא. Old Byblian alone preserved a second pronoun האה; cf. ESA and perhaps Eth. 19 This form is parallel to the third person plural independent pronoun "they" in standard Phoenician. 20 Perhaps the preservation of this pronoun was a Phoenician trait.

ld. The third person masculine plural.

PHOENICIAN (including Byblian?): המת (Kilamu 13; cf. Karatepe A I 17).²¹ That this pronoun was not restricted to the northern Phoenician periphery is proven by its appearance in later Cyprian (KAI 43:5 [fem. plural]) and Sidonian dialects (Eshmunazor 11.22 [both demonstrative]).

ARAMAIC: הן (Sf. I B 6) and הן (Zkr A 9). There is no apparent semantic or syntactic difference between these two forms. The short form of this pronoun was not productive in the later Aramaic dialects.

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: הם* [hēm], as inferred from the biblical texts. BH also had the form and, cognate with Phoenician and. Neither form is found in the epigraphic Hebrew texts.

As in other Semitic languages, these dialects exhibit several forms of the third person masculine plural independent pronoun. Phoenician (regularly?) used חמח as its subjective pronoun; cf. also BH המה and ESA hmt.22 A short form, מה, appeared (presumably) in epigraphic Hebrew; in Old Aramaic, the independent pronoun was restricted to the dialect of Sfire. The other form, וה]מו is found in Zkr as well as in the later Aramaic dialects; cf. Arabic and ESA.

The demonstrative pronouns: "This" (masc. sing.).

BYBLIAN: 11 (Ahirom 2: Ahirom Graff. 3).23 Later Byblian had both it (Yehawmilk 4.5.12, etc.) and t (Yehawmilk 4.5.10, etc.).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: † [(?)] (Kilamu 14.15; Karatepe A III 14.15.18).

ARAMAIC: זנה (Zkr A 17, etc.; Br-Rkb 1:20; Sf. I A 36, etc.; Adon 824)

SAMALIAN: זן (H 1.14.16; P 1.20) and זנה (P 22). These two forms of the pronoun probably reflect different spellings of the same demonstrative [dinā, zinā];25 cf. the spellings of the relative particle as ग (H 1) and t(n) (H 3.4.22).

AMMONITE: No evidence, van Selms, 26 however, believed to have uncovered the masc. sing. demonstrative in לר (Cit. 1), comparable to Arabic [dalika] "this." Yet as most scholars have recognized, 27 it is preferable to understand this form as the dative preposition - 'to, for' + second person masc. sing. suffix "you." Not only does this interpretation fit the context better than the demonstrative, but a specifically Arabic etymology need not be invoked.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: דה (Zel (Arad 13:2; el-Oom 1:3; Yavneh-Yam 1:9; Shiloah 1, etc). It is also possible that this demonstrative is attested in Hazor 3,28 if the reading \(\pi_{\text{l}} \) and "this house/bath" is correct.

Two forms of the masc, sing, demonstrative pronoun "this" appear in the first-millennium NWS dialects. The "short" form, *d + vowel, is attested only in standard Phoenician and Hebrew. A longer form, with nun as the second consonant, appears in Old Byblian, Old Aramaic, and Samalian. In later Byblian, however, the "short" form competed with the older tr.

It is difficult to decide the extent to which shared innovation accounts for this distribution. The Semitic languages show demonstrative pronouns derived from *d- and from *d-n.29 so that both bases may be reconstructed for Proto-Semitic. In NWS, however, *d appears to be restricted to the Canaanite group.

2b. "This" (fem. sing.).

BYBLIAN: KI*, as inferred from later Byblian inscriptions (Yehawmilk 6, 12).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: 1 (Karatepe A II 9.17, III 15). ARAMAIC: אז (Sf. I A 35.37, III 9) and זאת (Fekh. 15).30

SAMALIAN: KT (H 18).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

моавіте: лкт (Mesha 3).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: את (Silwan B 1.3; Lach. 6:10; Arad 40:14/15 | partially restored).

All forms of the fem. sing. demonstrative pronoun are derived from *da.31 This form was preserved in standard Phoenician. In Byblian (?), Old Aramaic (excluding Fekh.), and Samalian, a secondary, syllable-closing aleph appeared on the pronoun.³² In addition to this syllable-closing aleph, a final -t also appeared in the Moabite, Hebrew, and Fekh.-Aramaic demonstrative; cf. Ethiopic. 33 Because of this distribution, the t-forms may have been common inheritances³⁴ or parallel, independent developments.

2c. "These" (common plural).

BYBLIAN: אל (Yehimilk 3).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: אל, as inferred from the later Phoenician texts (Eshmunazor 22; CIS I 14.5, etc.).

Rosenthal³⁵ and Caquot³⁶ have suggested that this demonstrative appears in Arsl.T. 1:3; the former read אלה, the latter אלו. Yet the reading and context of the passage in question are too unclear to provide any certain evidence of this demonstrative.

ARAMAIC: אל (Zkr A 9.16, B 8) and אלו (Sf. I A 7.7.38, etc.). The second form, with final nun, arose on analogy with the singular אנה. the nun of the singular form was transferred to the plural.³⁷ Cf. biblical Aramaic אלך "that" (sing.) and אלך "those" (plural). Alternatively, the nun was borrowed from the nominal plural morpheme

SAMALIAN: 5x (H 29).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Evidence uncertain. Hoftijzer38 and Caquot and Lemaire³⁹ identified אל (I 2) as the demonstrative plural, whereas Hackett⁴⁰ and others⁴¹ interpreted it as the divine name "El." It is not possible to decide between these alternatives at present.42

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: No evidence from the epigraphic texts. In BH, this demonstrative is אלה.

All first-millennium NWS dialects exhibit a demonstrative plural pronoun derived from *'i/ull.43 Whereas nearly all dialects had the same consonantal formation of the demonstrative, the vocalization differed slightly from dialect to dialect. The later Punic transcription, ily "these" (Poen. 938), suggests that the Phoenician demonstrative was pronounced approximately ['ille]. This final vowel, however, was not an innovation shared exclusively by Phoenician and Hebrew; it also appears in Arabic and later Aramaic dialects. 44

Yet in terms of first-millennium NWS dialect grouping, Phoenician and BH share one form, and Aramaic-Samalian another.

The major deviation, or innovation, away from the common NWS אא was the addition of a final nun in Sfire-Aramaic, on analogy with either the final nun of the masculine singular demonstrative or the nominal plural morpheme 1-. This particular analogy was unique to Old Aramaic, among the first-millennium NWS dialects. 45

3. The relative pronoun/particle.

BYBLIAN: -1 [zu, zi (?)] (Ahirom 1; Yehimilk 1; Elibaal 1; Shiptibaal 1). In later Byblian, -t died out, and another relative, wk, appeared (Yehawmilk 2, etc.; KAI 11).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: אש (Kilamu 15: Karatepe A I 15.19, etc.: Arsl.T. 1:16, 2:4).

ARAMAIC: 71 [dī] (Zkr A 1.16, etc.; Br-Hdd 1.4; Sf. 1 A 5.7, etc.; Fekh. 1.5, etc.). 46 In Halaf Ost. 1 Obv. 5, the relative was written defectively as 1,47 like the construction i'my, mine in the Assur Ost. 13.48

SAMALIAN: 7 [dī, zī] (H 1), written defectively in the construction m "whatever" (H 3.4.22)49 and in Kilamu Scepter 1 t.50

AMMONITE: www (Hesh. Ost. 4:6).51

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

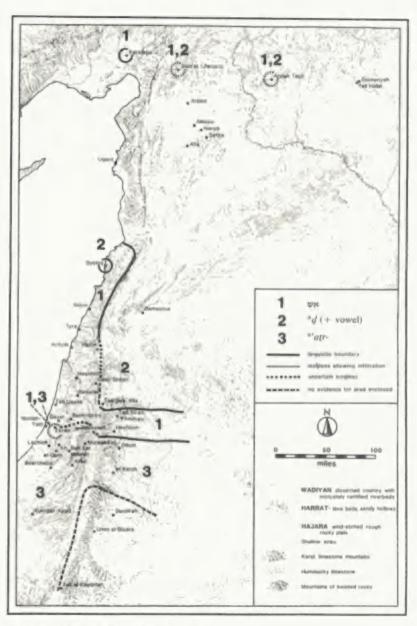
Although Hackett52 found the Deir Alla relative in אש (11), the context and syntax of the passage suggest the meaning "man."53 A relative particle n⁵⁴ is also uncertain; in Clay Text 1 it is probably Aramaic,55 and in fragment Vf 3 the reading is too uncertain.

MOABITE: אשר (Mesha 29).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: אשר (Lach. 3:5; Arad 40:5, etc.; Mur 17 A 2; Silwan B 1.2; etc.). 55a There is no direct evidence of a relative -w in the epigraphic texts.

The relative particle of the first-millennium NWS dialects was formed from three different roots. Byblian Phoenician, Old Aramaic, and Samalian formed the relative from *d. Standard Phoenician and Ammonite formed a group which used *t as the base for the relative particle. And Moabite and Hebrew used a (construct?) form of the noun *'atru "place" as the relative; cf., possibly, asar in EA56 and 'atr once in Ugaritic.57 Whereas *d58 and *t59 are Proto-Semitic



MAP 4: The relative particle/pronoun.

relative particles. Moabite and Hebrew jointly recycled the old noun "place" in this new manner. This use of "atru" place," then, was an innovation shared exclusively by Moabite and Hebrew among the first-millennium NWS dialects.

4. The personal, interrogative pronoun.

PHOENICIAN: מין [miya, mī] (Kilamu 11.12.13.15). Cf. EA mi-va "who" (EA 85:63, 94:12, 116:67).60

ARAMAIC: מן [man] (Zkr B 21, etc.; Sf. II B 9, etc.; Fekh. 10.16). SAMALIAN: 12 [man (?)] (H 15).

AMMONITE: מכמאל [mī], in the PN מכמאל [Mī-kamō-'el] (seal61).62

DEIR ALLA: מן [man (?)] (II 12), if the line is to be read בלבב.מן. נאנדו ff, however, the line is read בלבבם. נאנדו 63 the pronoun m disappears.65

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: מי [mī] (Lach. 2:3, 5:3, 6:2, 7:2 [partially restored]. 9:2 [partially restored]).

The NWS dialects employed two personal, interrogative pronouns. Old Aramaic, Samalian, and possibly Deir Alla used the common Semitic pronoun *man. 66 Phoenician, Ammonite, and Hebrew, however, jointly innovated by using a new form *miya. 67 These latter three dialects, then, constituted a single dialectal group not only within NWS but also within the other Semitic languages as well.

The form of the definite article.

PHOENICIAN: -ה (e.g., הבתם "the houses" [Yehimilk 2].68 "the city" [Karatepe A II 9.17, etc.], המלכם "the kings" [Kilamu 9/10], and הנסך "the weaver" [Achzib]⁶⁹). The definite article was followed by consonantal gemination, as inferred from the late Punic forms עממקם [ammagom] "the places" (KAI 173:5) < *ha(m) +maqôm⁷⁰ and possibly הגגפם [haggāpīm] "the fences" (CIS I 340) $< *ha(g) + gapim.^{71}$

ARAMAIC: א- [a] (e.g., נעבא "the stele" [Br-Hdd 1; Zkr A 1, etc.], ארקא "the land" [Br-Rkb 1:4; Adon 2], ארקא "the image" [Fekh. 1.15], etc.).

Two exceptions to the designation of the definite article by postpositive aleph have been adduced, both involving the use of postpositive he. The first is מלכה (Hama 7 A 923 + 7 A 538), which Garbini⁷² and Donner and Röllig⁷³ interpreted as "the king." Yet, as Degen⁷⁴ has suggested, מלכה should be interpreted either as "his king" or "queen"; the final he was not the definite article.

The other exception is the form אחרה (Nerab 1:13), which Cooke⁷⁵ interpreted as "another," comparable to later Aramaic; the final *he* would represent the usual postpositive *aleph* of the definite article. Yet the form is better interpreted as אחר + adverbial [ā], in the sense of "in the future"; '6 cf. יin the future" (Nerab 2:8), with pleonastic *lamedh*. This interpretation better fits both the context and syntax of the inscription. The only definite article in Old Aramaic, then, was postpositive ×- [ā²].

SAMALIAN: There is no evidence of a written definite article in Samalian;⁷⁷ all examples of a suffixed *aleph* corresponding to a definite article are uncertain.⁷⁸ Yet it is impossible to verify Schaeder's⁷⁹ thesis that Samalian had a suffixed definite article [â] which was never present in the orthography. Until a written form of the definite article appears, it is preferable to follow the majority of scholars and to deny the existence of the definite article in this dialect.

AMMONITE: -ה. as in הכרם "the vineyard" (Sir. 4) and הגנת the garden" (Sir. 4).

DEIR ALLA: There is no certain evidence of a definite article in these texts. אם Hoftijzer strangested that it was א-, based on the reading יבשכמתא. "and in these mountainous regions (?)" in I 2. Caquot and Lemaire, sa well as McCarter, sa agreed that the definite article in Deir Alla was א-, but they read I 2 as ממלון א. "according to these words." Yet Hackett's reading יוווא "like an oracle of El" is also plausible. In that case, the final aleph was a root letter. McCarter further cited יווא יוי of the gatekeeper" (Clay Text 1) and אבן שרעא "the gatekeeper's stone" (Clay Text 2) as proof of a suffixed definite article א- in the Deir Alla spoken dialect. Yet in addition to the uncertainty of equating the dialect of the Clay Texts with that of the plaster texts, שרעא be a personal name ending in the hypocoristicon [ô]. Finally, the suggested definite article in "in the future (?)" (I 2) to grammatically difficult. sa

MOABITE: -ה, as in הארץ "the land" (Mesha 29.31), הקר "the city" (Mesha 12.24.24), and היערן "the forests" (Mesha 21).⁸⁹

EDOMITE: -ה, as in המלך "the king" (Bus. 386; 90 seal of 91). 92

HEBREW: -ה, as in הנקבה "the tunnel" (Shiloah 1), הצבא "the army" (Lach. 3:14), and הים "the day, today" (Arad 1:4, 24:19). Presumably the definite article in epigraphic Hebrew was pronounced like its Masoretic counterpart, [ha] + gemination of the following consonant.

The definite article is a morphological innovation which appeared during the early first millennium B.C.E. 93 It did not develop in Samalian. In the other dialects, however, it appeared either as a prefixed he (+ gemination of the following consonant) or a suffixed $[\tilde{a}^2]$. The article he is found in Phoenician dialects, Ammonite, Moabite, Edomite, and in Hebrew. $[\tilde{a}^2]$ is found only in Old Aramaic. The form of the definite article in the Deir Alla dialect is still unknown.

6a. The noun: The ending of the absolute dual and masculine plural.

PHOENICIAN: ם-, as in מלכם "kings" (Ahirom 2; Kilamu 5.6, etc.), מקמם "places" (Karatepe A I 14.17, II 3), and מקמם "Heaven" (Yehimilk 3; Karatepe A III 18). In the Arslan Tash dialect, however, the ending was ן-, as in קדשן "Holy Ones" (Arsl.T. 1:12) and ללין "night demons" (1:20); "the cultic terms בן אלם "divinities" (Arsl.T. 1:11) and ממם "Heaven" (Arsl.T. 1:13) are borrowed, or inherited, religious vocabulary and do not reflect local speech patterns. "95

ARAMAIC: ן-, as in מלכן "kings" (Zkr A 5; Br-Rkb 1:10.13, etc.), אלהן "gods" (Zkr B 9; Sf. I A 30, etc.; Fekh. 14.4), and שמין "heaven" (Sf. I A 26, etc.; Fekh. 2; Adon 3; Zkr B 25 [partially restored]).

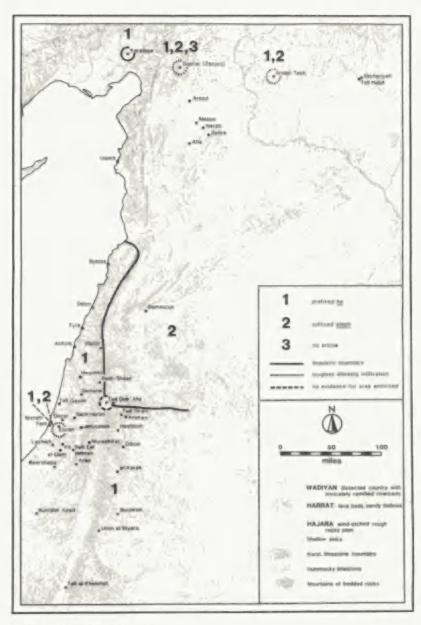
SAMALIAN: The ending of the nominative masc. plural was ז-[ū], and the oblique was ז-[ī]. he ending of the oblique dual was r- also, as in בלגרי 'at the feet' (P 16) and יידי 'his hands' (H 29); in both cases, however, the nouns are bound, not absolute.

AMMONITE: ב-, as in אלם "gods" (Cit. 6) and the later form הבלם "ropes" (Hesh. Ost. 11:4); cf. רבם "great" (masc. plural) (Sir. 7).

DEIR ALLA: ן-, as in אלהן "gods" (11.1.5, etc.), ישמין "wise men" (111), and שמין "heaven" (16).

моавіте: ן-, as in ימן "days" (Mesha 5), שלשן "30" (Mesha 2), and מאתן "200" (Mesha 20).

EDOMITE: No evidence.



MAP 5: The definite article.

HEBREW: חצבם , as in חמרם "asses" (Arad 3:5), מצבם "hewers" (Shiloah 4), שנים "2" (Arad 7:7), and מאתים "200" (Shiloah 5).

Like all Semitic languages, the absolute dual and masculine plural end in a long vowel, long vowel + n, or long vowel + m. 98 As in Akkadian masc, plural nouns, Samalian forms terminated in a simple long vowel. Nunation was added in Aramaic, Deir Alla, Moabite, and the Phoenician dialect of Arslan Tash; the origin of this -n is uncertain. And in Phoenician dialects (except at Arslan Tash), Ammonite, and Hebrew, these nominal forms ended in -m: this -m was transferred from the mimation of singular nouns. In view of the Akkadian and Samalian evidence, both mimation and nunation may have been secondary developments.99

6b. The ending of the masculine plural construct.

PHOENICIAN: -# [ê], as for example in בן גבל "the gods of Byblos" (Yehimilk 4.7), פן.ש "the face of a sheep" (Kilamu II), and בן אלם "divinities" (Arsl.T. 1:11). For the ending [ê], see the Greek transcriptions ΦΑΝΕ ΒΑΛ "Face of Baal" (KAI 175:2) and ΦΕΝΗ ΒΑΛ "Face of Baal" (KAI 176:2/3). 100

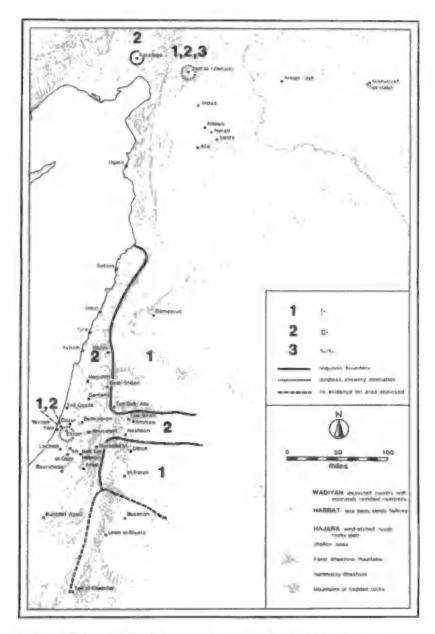
ARAMAIC: י- [av], as for example בתי [bâttav] "the houses of" (Zkr B 9; Sf. II C 2/3, etc.) and עדי ['a/eday] "the treaty of" (Sf. I A I, etc.), etc.

SAMALIAN: There was no special form for the masc. plural construct noun. 101 The ending was either [ũ] or [ĩ], depending upon the syntax of the nomen regens: when the noun was the grammatical subject, it ended in [ū], and when it was the object or followed a preposition, it ended in [î]. 102

AMMONITE: - און (?)], as in בן "the sons of" (Sir. 1.2.3; Theater 2 [?]). The vocalization of this ending, however, is uncertain. Either it was *[ê] < *ay, as in Phoenician and (northern) Hebrew, or *[ī]. 103 Since the masculine plural construct may have originally been *-i in NWS, 104 it is unknown whether the original *-i was retained in Ammonite or was replaced by the dual construct *-ay (as in Phoenician, Hebrew, and Aramaic).

DEIR ALLA: י- [ay], as in אפרחי.אנפה "chicks of the heron" (I 8) and משכבי. עלמיך "men" (II 8); cf. משכבי. עלמיך "your eternal bed" (II 11).

אסר וימי (Mesha 25/26). ימי "prisoners of" (Mesha 25/26), ימי "the days of" (Mesha 8), and 'before" (Mesha 13.18); cf. שעריה



MAP 6: The ending of the absolute dual and masculine plural noun.

"its gates" (Mesha 22), in which the yodh suggests the reflex of an original diphthong *av.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The evidence comes only from the southern dialect. where the masc, plural construct ended in - [ay], as for example בני "the sons of" (Arad 16:5, 49:1.2, etc.), ספרי "the letters of" (Lach. 6:4), and "the matters of" (Lach. 6:5). Since diphthongs did not contract in the southern Hebrew dialect, 105 it is probable that the masc. plural construct ending *ay did not contract either. There is no reason, then, to accept the conclusion of Dion 106 that this ending - was pronounced [e], as in Phoenician, Ammonite, and Moabite. In northern Hebrew, however, this morpheme would have been pronounced *[ê].

The masc, plural construct ending is an innovation within NWS. In Samalian, the morpheme had not yet developed; the nominal ending depended upon the syntax of the noun itself and not on its relation to its following modifier. An old ending *-i may have appeared in Ammonite, but the evidence is uncertain. The common NWS masc. plural ending *-av, however, is found in Phoenician, Aramaic, Deir Alla, Moabite, Hebrew, and possibly in Ammonite. This morphological innovation, then, was shared by most, if not all, NWS dialects in Syria-Palestine proper.

6c. The ending of the absolute feminine singular.

BYBLIAN: ח- [ôt], as in מחנת [mahnôt] "camp" (Ahirom 2), and [t], as in nru [naht (?)] "peace" (Ahirom 2). 107

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: n- [ot] 108 (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18a). In later Phoenician, "year" appears as שת < *šan-t (KAI 19:5, 52:4, 60:1, etc.).

ARAMAIC: 71- [a] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18a). Other endings included [ât] (as in מרמת [marmât] "rebellion" [Sf. III 22]) and possibly [t] (as in שאת [ta't (?)] "ewe" [Sf. I A 21]).

SAMALIAN: ה- [a] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18a). A fem. sing, abstract form in 1- [û] also appeared in this dialect (e.g., carr) "greatness" [H 11] and אברו "strength" [H 15.21]). 109

AMMONITE: n- [at (?)] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18a). DEIR ALLA: n- [ā] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18a).

אסמודר: ח-. The ending was vocalized [t] in אח [šat(t)] "year" (Mesha 2.8) < *šant, and perhaps in משמעת [ma/išmaʿt] "subjects" (Mesha 28); cf. BH משמעת. The ending was vocalized [at] in המסלת [ham-masillat] "the highway" (Mesha 26) and [it] in אחרת [šaḥrīt] "morning" (Mesha 15). Three pronunciations [t], [at], and [it], then, are concealed behind one consonantal ending n-. 110

EDOMITE: No evidence.111

HEBREW: ה- [ā] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18a). Other abs. fem. sing. endings included n-, vocalized [t] (as in mw [šat(t)] "year" [Sam. Ost., passim] < *šan-t; cf. BH *šan-at) and [īt] (as in העשרת [hā-'śīrīt] "the tenth" [Sam. Ost. 1:1, etc.] and רבעת [r³bī'īt] "fourth" (Lach. 29]), and a form in הי- [īt (?), iyyāt] "on the ninth" [Lach. 20:1]).

The basic form of the abs. fem. sing. noun ended in *-át in all first-millennium NWS dialects. This *-át was preserved, with different pronunciations, in Phoenician dialects, Ammonite, and Moabite; in Aramaic, Samalian, the Deir Alla dialect, and Hebrew, *-át changed to [á] in this nominal form. This distribution of the correspondence *-át:[á] does not indicate the geographical (or dialectal) source of this innovation. Indeed, the appearance of *-át:[á] in several Semitic languages suggests that it occurred independently in NWS. 112

Other feminine singular endings varied from dialect to dialect. Samalian alone preserved the abstract ending [ū], which is also found in later Aramaic dialects. A feminine n- is found in Old Byblian nm, in (northern?) Hebrew, Moabite, and later Phoenician nw, and possibly in Old Aramaic nw; the simple addition of [t] to a *CaC base may have been a northern, Syro-Palestinian linguistic feature. Finally, Hebrew and Moabite shared the ending [īt], while Hebrew may have contained a ballast form of this ending under the guise of nm-.

6d. The ending of the absolute feminine plural.

PHOENICIAN: n- $[\delta t] < *\tilde{a}t$, as in nw $[\tilde{s}an\delta t]$ "years" (Karatepe A III 6) and nwn $[\tilde{h}\delta miy(y)\delta t]$ "walls" (Karatepe A I 13.17). For the vocalization, see *alonuth* "goddesses" (Poen. 930), 113 where *-uth* represents the Phoenician ending $[\delta t] < *\tilde{a}t$.

ARAMAIC: There were two abs. fem. plural endings in Old Aramaic. One was n- [āt], as in לחית [lahyāt] "evil" (Sf. I C 20, III 2). The other was ז- [an], as for example שאן "ewes" (Sf. 1 A 23), מהי ונקן "wetnurses" (Sf. 1 A 21), and מעינן "wells" (Sf. 1 A 12); cf. סארן "ewes" (Fekh. 20) and נשון "women" (Fekh. 21.22). 114 In Sfire, the two endings may have marked a distinction between feminine plural adjectives ([āt]) and nouns ([ān]).115

The ending in [an] was a secondary innovation in Aramaic, formed on analogy with the abs. masc. plural ending [in]. 116 The analogy followed a proportional model:

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[tāb] "good" (masc. sing.): [tāb-ī-n] "good" (masc. pl.)
[tābā] "good" (fem. sing.) : *tāb-ā- "good" (fem. pl.)
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The final nun became the sign of plurality and was transferred from the abs. masc. plural to the abs. fem. plural. The form, therefore, became [tābān] and replaced the older [tābāt].

SAMALIAN: ח- [at], as in קירת [qīrāt] "cities" (H 10; P 4), קתילת (P 4). "killed (women)" (P 8), and חרבת "wasted (cities)" (P 4).

מבאת AMMONITE: ח- [ot], as in מבאת "entrances" (Cit. 1) and יימת "days" (Sir. 7).

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

While Hoftijzer¹¹⁷ believed he isolated three examples of the abs, fem. plural, each example is dubious. The alleged fem. plural 1(15) is to be read if 1.118 The plural form, ח. אתיחדו in -ת "hares" (1 9), is not the feminine plural of ארנבה* but the masculine plural of sing. ארנב (cf. Old Aramaic, Arabic, and Akkadian). 119 Finally, the form 'constraint' (1 14) does not conceal an abs. fem. plural; the nun is probably a nominal suffix *ān attached to the middle weak root *dwq. 120 There are, then, no certain examples of the abs. fem. plural in the Deir Alla texts.

MOABITE: ת- [(?)], as in גברת "women" (Mesha 16) and החמת "children" (Mesha 17).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

אמת hebrew: ח- lotl, as in האגנת "the basins" (Arad 1:10) and אמת "cubits" (Shiloah 2).

All the first-millennium NWS dialects exhibit final n- for the singular of the abs. fem. plural. The old form, [at], as in Akkadian and Arabic, was preserved in Old Aramaic and Samalian; those dialects which had the systematic correspondence *a:[o] had the ending [ot]—i.e. Phoenician dialects, Ammonite, and Hebrew.

The only deviation from the use of final taw as the sign of the abs. fem. plural was in Old Aramaic. There, the nun of the abs. masc. plural was transferred to the abs. fem. plural. The Sfire texts document this change from [āt] to [ān]; in these texts alone, both endings appear in complementary distribution. In the later Aramaic dialects, however, [ān] dominated.

7. The plural formation of final weak nouns.

PHOENICIAN: Final weak nominal plurals ended in *iy(y)ōt. *iy(y)īm, or *iy(y)īn, as for example קציח [qaṣiy(y)ōt] "extremities" (Karatepe A I 14) < קציח [qaṣit] (Karatepe A I 21, B 1), חמיח [ḥōmiy(y)ōt] "walls" (Karatepe A I 13.17), and ללין [lêliy(y)īn] "night demons" (Arsl.T. 1:20). In Ugaritic, a similar plural appeared, as in hmyt "the walls of" (CTA 32:28) and perhaps qrytm "two cities" (CTA 3:B:7).

ARAMAIC: As in later Aramaic dialects, ¹²¹ final weak nouns ended in *awwā- + fem. plural morpheme, as for example מאנות [maḥnawwāt] "camps of" (construct) (Zkr A 9)¹²² and און [taʾawwān] "ewes" (Fekh. 20). Cf. נשון [našawwān] "women" (Fekh. 21.22), in which the root was considered final weak. ¹²³

A special plural formation of final weak nouns did not appear at Sfire. In the Aramaic dialect of that community, the simple nominal plural morpheme was added to the singular base. So, for example, שאת "ewes" (Sf. I A 23) < sing. שאת (Sf. I A 21) was analyzed as $*ta^3$ + suffix, not as a final weak root. (Sf. I A 21) which also coincides with the general Aramaic plural formations in these nouns.

SAMALIAN: All evidence suggests that the plural of final weak nouns was the same as that of regular, strong nouns. For example, antime "camps" (P 13.16), if plural, 125 should be vocalized [maḥnāt], in contrast to Old Aramaic מחנות. Similarly, mašwāt] "(?)" (P 21) is derived from *mašway + at (sing.) > *mašwaat > *[mašwât] $^{126} \rightarrow$ [mašwāt (?)] (plural). The pattern for the plural of final weak nouns, then, followed that of regular, strong nouns.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. The etymology and meaning of שדין (1 6.5 [partially restored]) is still uncertain; if derived from a final weak root, it is possible that this form reflects a plural formation $*iy(y)\bar{i}n$ comparable to that of $\forall y \in A$ in Arsl.T. 1:20.

MOABITE: Final weak nouns followed the pattern of regular, strong nouns, as for example חמת [homā/ot] "walls" (Mesha 21.21 [both construct]). Cf. Phoenician חמים.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Final weak nouns followed the pattern of regular, strong nouns, as inferred from plural forms in the Masoretic text (e.g., חמת [homot] "walls," etc.).

The form of the plural in final weak nouns divided the firstmillennium NWS dialects into two groups. In Samalian, Moabite, and Sfire-Aramaic the plural morpheme was attached to the nominal singular base. In Phoenician and Old Aramaic (excluding Sfire), a special plural formation appeared, *iv(y)- + plural in the former and *awwā- + fem. plural in the latter. These two northern dialect groups deviated from the common NWS pattern.

On the one hand, Phoenician and Old Aramaic (excepting Sfire) were united by special plural formations of final weak nouns. On the other, the actual plural form itself differed between them. Phoenician leveled all final weak nouns to yodh (*iy[y]-), and Aramaic leveled them to waw (*awwā-). Despite the difference in outcomes, however, these dialects constituted one group in their use of a plural formation for final weak nouns different from that of regular, strong nouns.

The attaching of possessive suffixes to feminine plural nouns.

BYBLIAN: In all probability, the suffix was attached to fem. plural nouns in the same manner as it was attached to masc./fem. sing. nouns. One example is מג/פשת "my offerings/possessions" (Bronze Spat. 5), where the noun appears to be plural; 127 the first person sing, suffix was # [i]. Had the suffix been attached in the same manner as it was to masc, plural nouns, the form would have been מג/פשחי with the suffix pronounced [ay(ya)]. 128 Further, in the inscriptions from the mid-tenth century onward, שנתו "his years" (Yehimilk 5; Elibaal 3; etc.) ended in the same suffix [aw, ô] as אדתו "his lady" (Elibaal 2; Shiptibaal 4) and זרעו "his seed" (Yehawmilk 15); cf., however, ימו "his days" (Yehawmilk 9), with a different pronunciation. 129 All evidence is admittedly ambiguous with respect to the suffix on these fem. plural nouns. Nevertheless, comparison

with other dialects strongly suggests that the suffix was attached to fem. plural nouns in the same manner as to masc./fem. sing. nouns.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: In all probability, the suffix was attached directly to the noun, without an intervening vowel [ê]. ¹³⁰ The first person sing. suffix was written י- on fem. plural nouns only when the noun stood in the genitive (e.g., 'בימתי ''in my days' [Karatepe A II 1.5, etc.]; cf. later יוקרא אנך את רבתי ''and I called my lady' [Yehawmilk 2/3], where יבתי was in the genitive following the preposition את ''and nouns appeared as י- ושבע.צרתי ו''and his seven cowives'' (Arsl.T. 1:17). But here too ידער was in the genitive case following אור וושבע ''and his seven cowives'' (Arsl.T. 1:17). But here too ידער was in the genitive case following וושבע ''in each example, then, it was the genitive construction which demanded the suffix י- on fem. plural nouns. There is no evidence that the fem. plural noun had a binding vowel [ê] before the suffix.

ARAMAIC: The suffix was attached directly onto the fem. plural noun in the same manner as onto masc./fem. sing. nouns (e.g., בנתה "his daughters" [Sf. I A 24] and מתנת.חם "their camps" [Zkr A 9]). Cf. the corresponding masc. plural nouns with a connecting diphthong (e.g., בנתה "his sons" [Sf. I A 5, etc.] and בתיהם "their houses" [Sf. II C 16]).

SAMALIAN: The evidence is ambiguous. Both examples of the fem. plural noun + suffix tentatively suggested by Dion¹³³—מברתה "his command(s)" (H 26.32) and בברתה "his strength" (H 32)—may have been fem. sing. nouns just as well.¹³⁴

AMMONITE: No evidence. 135
DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: The scanty evidence suggests that, like Aramaic and Phoenician, the suffix was directly attached to fem. plural nouns. 136 The form מגדלתה [magdalā/ōtāh] "its towers" (Mesha 22) contrasts with the only other example of the third person fem. sing. suffix on a plural noun, שעריה "its gates" (Mesha 22). Whereas Cross and Freedman 137 saw the identical suffix in both forms, the example of Phoenician and Aramaic suggests that the two forms are to be examined individually. הי is derived from the masc. plural construct ending *ay + suffix, whereas ה is, like the suffix on sing. nouns, the simple suffix added directly onto the noun. The Moabite form would therefore tally with that of the other NWS dialects, with the exception of Hebrew.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: As inferred from BH, the suffixes were attached to fem. plural nouns in the same manner as to masc. plural nouns: a binding vowel [ê] was transferred from the masc. to the fem. plural suffixed form, ¹³⁸ probably on the following model:

[bānīm] "sons" : [bān-ê-hā] "her sons" [bānôt] "daughters" : *banôt- -hā "her daughters"

The connecting vowel [ê] was inserted in the fem. plural paradigm on analogy with the masc. plural suffixed noun. In the southern dialect the connecting vowel would have been *[ay], as in לפניך [li-pānayk(a)] "before you" (Arad 7:6); in the northern dialect it would have been the monophthong [ê] (no certain examples).

The evidence suggests that the general NWS pattern for appending suffixes onto fem. plural nouns was noun + suffix of the masc./fem. sing. noun. Since, like masc, and fem. sing. nouns, the fem. plural ended in a simple consonant, the suffix could have been attached directly onto the noun (perhaps with a short, connecting vowel). This pattern appeared in Aramaic, Moabite, and probably Phoenician.

A second formation was attested only in Hebrew. On analogy with the suffixed masc. plural noun, the fem. plural suffixed noun borrowed the connective *[ay]/[ê] and inserted it between the fem. plural noun and suffix. Like other cases of proportional analogy, this transference was idiosyncratic, restricted to a single dialect, and did not spread to other dialects.

9a. The form of the possessive suffix attached to "singular" nouns: The first person singular.

BYBLIAN: 40 [i], when the noun was in the nominative/accusative, and י- [iya (?)], when the noun was in the genitive case. While there is no direct evidence from Byblian of this period, later texts show that the distinction between [i] and [iya (?)] was maintained (e.g., לף [qoli] "my voice" [Yehawmilk 3.8], as direct object of waw "she heard" vs. "pittūḥiya (?)] "of my inscription" [Yehawmilk 5], as genitive governed by a prepositional phrase). 139

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: 40 [i], when the noun was in the nominative/*accusative 140 case (e.g., רבן. אב l'abī] "and my father was" [Kilamu 3]), and > [iya (?)], when the noun was in the genitive case (e.g., בת אבי ['abīya (?)] "my father's house" [Kilamu 5; cf. 1. 9 = Karatepe A I III and בת ארני Padoniya (?)] "my lordly houses" וארני [Karatepe A I 10]). In later standard Phoenician, the written form - was pronounced [i] and was standardized for all cases. 142

ARAMAIC: >- [ī], regardless of construction, as for example אבי ['abī] "my father" (Br-Rkb 1:4, etc.; Sf. II B 8, etc. [all genitive]), (Sf. I B 38 (accusative)), etc. 143 לחמי

SAMALIAN: >- [i], regardless of construction, as for example [mattabī, maššabī] "my throne" (H 15.20 [both genitive]), אבי [abī] "my father" (H 8; P 10 [both genitive]; P 6.8.10 [all nominative]), etc.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: -- [i], attested only in לבי [libbi (?)] "my heart (?)" (11 32).

MOABITE: י- [î], regardless of construction, as for example אבי ['abī] "my father" (Mesha 3 [genitive]; I. 2 [nominative]).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: >- [ī], regardless of construction, as for example כצאתי [k³sē(²)tī] "when I left" (Arad 16:3 [genitive]), ארני [adonī] "my lord" (Arad 18:1; Lach. 2:1, etc. [all genitive]; Arad 21:3 [nominativel), etc.

Most of the first-millennium NWS dialects had [i] for the possessive suffix of the first person sing, on sing, nouns. This ending appeared regardless of the syntax of the base noun; after the loss of final short vowels, the suffix on genitive nouns ([iya(?)]) had merged with its nominative/accusative counterpart ([i]).

Only the Phoenician dialects preserved this distinction between [ī] and [iya (?)]. Like Ugaritic¹⁴⁴ and Akkadian, ¹⁴⁵ the Phoenician dialects show [iya (?)] on the genitive noun and [ī] on the nominative/accusative. Even after short, final vowels had been lost in NWS, standard Phoenician continued to preserve, at least orthographically, the distinction between the different forms of the possessive pronoun. Later, one orthographic form and one pronunciation became standardized for all cases. Like the other NWS dialects, then, Phoenician ultimately used the single ending > [1] for the first person sing, possessive suffix.

The third person sing, suffix, masculine and 9b. feminine.

BYBLIAN: Masc. ה- [hū] in the oldest inscription, as for example אבה ['abīhū] "his father" (Ahirom 1). In the course of the tenth century, however, the Byblian suffix changed to 1- [aw, ô], as for example אדתו ['adottaw, -tô] "his lady" (Elibaal 2: Shiptibaal 4) and שנתו [šanōtaw, -tô] "his years" (Yehimilk 5; Elibaal 3; Shiptibaal 5), 147

Fem. ה-* [hā], as inferred from the late Byblian form מספניתה "its roof" (Yehawmilk 6).

Another suffix, $1 - [nn\tilde{u}(?)] < *n-h\tilde{u}$, is found only on monoconsonantal prepositions in later Byblian texts (e.g., 12 [bi/annū (?)] "in it" [KAI 9 A 3]). In the earlier texts, however, there is no example of a preposition + third person masc./fem. sing. suffix. Two hypotheses can explain the appearance of this form in the later dialect: (1) 1- occurred in the older phase of the dialect but is as yet unattested. In this case, 1- would have been native to this dialect; or (2) 1- spread from standard Phoenician (where it is attested already in the eighth century) to later Byblian. In this second case, 1- was not an indigenous form but spread, or was borrowed, from the neighboring dialect. Since later Byblian shows a number of borrowings from standard Phoenician, the second hypothesis is preferable.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: Masc. The ending was $-\emptyset$ [ô] $< *-ah\tilde{u}$ if the suffix did not follow a vowel, as for example pw [šmô] "his name" (Karatepe A III 14.16, C IV 16 (accusative)) and ראש [rōšô] "his head" (Kilamu 15.16 [accusative]). If the suffix followed a vowel, especially the genitive vowel [i], the ending was >- ([yū])¹⁴⁸ or [vi]¹⁴⁹), as for example in צרתי [sarōtivû/i] "of his co-wives" (Arsl.T. 1:17), לתתי (li-tittiyū/ī) "that he may give" (Karatepe A III 4), and עד מבאי "until its setting" (Karatepe A I 5, II 3). See the identical distribution of the first person sing, possessive suffix on "singular" nouns.

The distinction between the suffixed [ô] and [iyu/ī] had begun to deteriorate by the late eighth century B.C.E. 150 In Karatepe A III 14.16, C IV 16, the text reads ישת שם "and sets up his name ([šmô])," whereas in C IV 18, the text reads ישת שמי, with the same meaning, 151 Either שמי is an orthographic error, or the form of the suffix after the genitive vowel [i] was beginning to predominate over the other form [ô]. Cf., in this respect, the competition between forms of the first person sing, suffix [i] and [iya (?)].

Fem. Like its masc, counterpart, the ending was $40 < *-ah\tilde{a}$, if the governing noun ended in a consonant, as for example [sma] "its name" (Karatepe A II 10.18 [accusative]). If, however, the governing noun ended in a vowel, the suffix was $*-<*i-h\tilde{a}^{1.52}$ (no examples from this period).

The fem. sing. suffix appeared as γ - [nnā (?)] < *n-hā only on monoconsonantal prepositions, as for example γ [bi/annā (?)] "in it (the city)" (Karatepe A II 18, III 8). 153

ARAMAIC: Masc. π - [ih (?)] < *i-hū, as for example $\pi\pi$ [yadih (?)] "his hand" (Sf. I B 27, III 2), $\pi\pi\pi$ [banātih (?)] "his daughters" (Sf. I A 24), etc. The vocalization is inferred from the later Aramaic dialects which consistently exhibit a form of *ih as this suffix. Like the standard Phoenician suffixes "my" [iya (?)] and "his/her" [iyū/ī, iyā], the connecting vowel between the noun and the suffix was the genitive [i]. In Aramaic, however, the genitive case became standardized as the connecting vowel for this suffix; in Phoenician, the use of the connecting [i] was subject to the syntax of the noun.

Fem. ה- [ah(a)] < *a-hā, as for example עמה [ʿammah(a)] 'its people'' (Sf. I A 29, etc.), כלה [kullah(a)] ''all of it'' (Sf. I A 5), etc. The exact pronunciation of the suffix is unknown. Either the original *ahā was preserved or it was shortened to [ah]. The suffix was π -, regardless of the case of the governing noun.

SAMALIAN: Masc. ה- [(?)], as in אב(ו) אב("his father" (H 29; P 2, etc.), היא "his lord" (P 11.12), משבה "his throne" (P 2), and לה him" (Kilamu Scepter 5).

Fem. ה- [(?)], as in כלה "all of it" (P 17).

AMMONITE: Masc. π^{-154} [uh, ih] < *-uhu or *-ihi, as in "its laver (?)" (Cit. 5). The interpretation of this form and word is disputed, however.

Fem. No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Masc. ה- [(?)], as in עמה "his people" (I 4, II 17), לבבה "his heart" (II 12), etc.

Fem. No evidence.

MOABITE: Masc. ה- [(?)], 156 as in בנה "his son" (Mesha 6.8), הה "his house" (Mesha 7.25), בה "over him" (Mesha 7), etc.

Fem. ה- [āh], as in בה [bāh] "in it" (Mesha 8, etc.) and מגדלתה [magdalā/otāh] "its towers" (Mesha 22).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Masc. The orthography of this suffix changed considerably throughout the history of epigraphic Hebrew. If the vocali-

zation of mas [yarhô] "his month" is accepted for Gezer Cal. 3, etc., 157 early Hebrew had a third person masc. sing. suffix in 46. The suffix would therefore be derived from *-ahū > [ô]. 158 Yet the form of man cannot be interpreted with any certainty.

The first certain example of the third person masc, sing. suffix is ה-, pronounced [ô] < *-ahā. 159 See, for example, אשרתה "his Asherah" (Ajrud), אמתה "his servant" (Lach. 2:5), אמתה "his maidservant" (Silwan B 2), etc. The identical suffix was represented by 1- in ירו [rēʿaw, rēʿô] "his fellow" (Shiloah 3); the waw was an alternate orthography for [ô] < *-aw < *-ahā. 160 The other suggested cases of the third person masc. sing. suffix 1-—Beit Lei A 2 יל "to him" and Yavneh-Yam 1:6 קצרו "his harvest" 162—may be misreadings of the text. 163

Fem. No evidence.

Although there is little evidence for the vocalization of the third person masc. sing. possessive suffix, each dialect probably had its own pronunciation of the suffix. Nevertheless, the dialects can be arranged, at least superficially, into groups. Old Aramaic (and Samalian?) preserved a final vowel on the suffix. Standard Phoenician and Aramaic shared the genitive case as the connecting vowel; in Aramaic, the vowel [i] was frozen and used for all nominal cases, thus [ih (?)], whereas in standard Phoenician the vowel [i] was restricted to the genitive case of the noun. Standard Phoenician, however, exhibits a further development from the original *- $h\tilde{u}$ since palatalization of the he occurred, so that this *h following the genitive [i] became γ . ¹⁶⁴ No other dialect exhibits this phenomenon.

The suffix $[\hat{o}] < *-ah\tilde{u}$ was characteristic of standard Phoenician when the governing noun was in the nominative or accusative case. The vocalization $[\hat{o}]$ is also found in Hebrew, regardless of the case of the governing noun.

There were fewer variations of the third person fem. sing. suffix in the different dialects. Old Aramaic preserved an old ending [ah(a)]. Moabite had a simplified [$\check{a}h$], and standard Phoenician was characterized by total syncopation of intervocalic he, thus [\hat{a}]. This standard Phoenician form is found only on nominative and accusative sing. nouns. Palatalization of the he in the fem. sing. suffix, as in its masc. counterpart, occurred on genitive nouns: *- $ih\check{a}$ > [$iy\hat{a}$]. The final feminine [\hat{a}] was preserved. Further, there was a fem. sing. suffix [$nn\hat{a}$ (?)] in standard Phoenician found only on prepositions.

Standard Phoenician, then, exhibits, by far, the greatest number of (1) suffixes of the third person singular, and (2) phonetic variants of the original *- $h\tilde{u}$ and *- $h\tilde{u}$. The suffixes of the other dialects are, to a large extent, traceable to forms found already in standard Phoenician.

9c. The first person plural.

PHOENICIAN: 1-, as in † "for us" (Arsl.T. 1:9¹⁶⁵). It is unclear whether the vocalization was [nū], like Hebrew and EA, or [ōn], like Punic. ¹⁶⁶

ARAMAIC: ן- [an, na], as in מראן 'our lord' (Haza'el). 167 The orthography of the suffix does not indicate whether the suffix was pronounced [na], with short [a], thereby anticipating the later common Aramaic suffix [nā], 168 or [an], like the suffix in eastern Aramaic dialects which have lost final vowels. 169 In the Elephantine texts, however, the first person plural suffix of the verb was represented by both ן- and אם-, thus [nā]. 170 The spelling with simple final nun may therefore reflect the old orthography. The pronunciation may have been [na] or [an] in the early texts. 171

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. Both examples cited by Hoftijzer¹⁷²—
ימרי "and we have beverage (?)" (II 18) and בן "on (?) us" (II 20)—appear in passages too unclear to yield any meaning.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: (אי] (הי) (Arad 40:13/14) and שמרן "our keeper, protector" (Ajrud). While the Arad form shows the expected orthographic representation of [nū], the Ajrud form is an archaic spelling of the same suffix.

In NWS, and all Semitic languages, two forms of the first person plural possessive suffix appear. The old suffix, $*n\bar{a}$, 173 appears in Aramaic dialects and other West Semitic languages. The other suffix, $*n\bar{u}$, is found in Hebrew and (?) Phoenician; the final \bar{u} may have been borrowed from the ending of the independent pronoun. 174

9d. The third person masculine plural.

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: מו- [nôm], 175 when following a vowel, especially the genitive vowel [i], as for example לשבתנם "that they might dwell" (Karatepe A I 17), בנחת לבנם "in the tranquility of their heart" (Karatepe A I 18), etc. Otherwise, the suffix was מון [ôm] < *-a-humu, as inferred from the later forms דעם [zar'ôm] "their seed" (Eshmunazor 22 [accusative]), קלם "their voice" (KAI 47:4 [accusative]), etc. These two forms of the suffix, then, stood in complementary distribution.

ARAMAIC: בח-[hum], as in קרקהם "their fugitive" (Sf. III 19/20 [nominative]), להם "to, for them" (Sf. III 3.5, etc.), בשהם "their soul" (Sf. III 5/6.6/7 [accusative]), etc. Another form, p-[am], occurred only in the Fekh. text, as in כלם "all of them" (II. 4.4). 176

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Two forms of the third person masc. plural suffix are attested in Deir Alla. One is מהם [hum (?)], found only in מלום "to them" (1 5). The other is מבן [am (?)], possibly found in the uncertain form בלבבם "in their heart" (11 12). 177 On the basis of this little information, it appears that, as in Hebrew, the Deir Alla suffix [am] was used following consonants, while the other form [hum (?)] followed vowels. Cf. also standard Phoenician.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: מום [ām] followed consonantal endings (e.g., ימם [yômām] "their day" [Ajrud] and אתם ['ôtām] "them" [Arad 3:6]), whereas הם - {hem]¹⁷⁸ followed vocalic endings (only in להם [lāhem] "for them" [Arad 1:8]).

Regardless of the syntax of the noun, Aramaic dialects generally had one suffix throughout the entire paradigm, [hum]. The remaining dialects, however, show a formal distinction between the postvocalic and postconsonantal suffix. Postconsonantally, *am appeared in Deir Alla, Hebrew (with tonic lengthening), Fekh.-Aramaic, and standard Phoenician (with tonic lengthening and * \hat{a} :[\hat{o}] correspondence). Postvocalically, Deir Alla and Hebrew employed could different pronunciations), whereas Phoenician had a new form D3-. For this nun, cf. already the third person sing. suffix on mono-

consonantal prepositions 1-. Thus, standard Phoenician, Fekh.-Aramaic, Deir Alla, and Hebrew formed one group; Aramaic-speaking communities, other than Fekheriveh, constituted another,

10a. The form of the possessive suffix attached to "plural" nouns: The second person masculine singular.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence.

ARAMAIC: ירך [ayk], as in שפתיך "your lips" (Sf. III 14/15). 180

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: יך (ayk), as in עלמיך "your eternities" (II 11).

MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Two forms of this suffix appeared in the epigraphic texts. The first, יך, appeared in, for example, 'before you'' (Arad 7:6), אליך "to you" (Mur 17 A 2), and אלהיר "your god" (Lach. 6:12/13). The other form, יכה, appears now in אלהיכה "your god" (Beit Lei A 1181). This second "long" form suggests that, as in BH, the epigraphic form was pronounced [kā]. Although the two spellings of this suffix may reflect dialectal differences, it is more likely that the difference is merely orthographic. The "short" form was an archaic spelling for [ka]; the "long" form was its phonetic spelling. 182

All forms of the second person masc. sing. suffix are derived from *-kā. 183 Southern Hebrew [aykā], 184 then, was inherited. In Aramaic and Deir Alla, the form was [ayk]; the loss of final a is an innovation which also occurs elsewhere in Semitic. 185 Neither form. then, was an exclusively shared innovation.

The third person masculine singular. 10b.

BYBLIAN: 1-* [aw (?)], as inferred from the late Byblian form ימר [yômaw (?)] "his days" (Yehawmilk 9). Since he did not syncopate in any NWS form of this suffix, 186 the evidence suggests a development from * $v\hat{o}mav-h\tilde{u} > (via regressive assimilation)$ * $v\hat{o}maw-h\tilde{u} > *v\hat{o}maw-wu > *v\hat{o}maww > [v\hat{o}maw (?)].$

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: - [êyû/ī], as in על ['alêyū/ī] "against him'' (Kilamu 8) and למנערי 'from his youth'' (Kilamu 12) < *-ê $y\bar{u}/\bar{t} < *-ay-h\bar{u}$. Like '- "his" attached to sing, nouns, this form of the suffix was used since it always followed a vowel. Cf. similarly the objective suffix on the infinitive absolute of final weak verbs. e.g. ובני אנך [banoya] "and I built it" (Karatepe A II II).

ARAMAIC: רוה - lawh(i)], as in בנוה lbanawh(i)] "his sons" (Sf. 1 A 5, II B 2'.6), שנוה "his years" (Fekh. 8), and "before him" (Nerab 2:2). Another form of this suffix may appear in Halaf Ost. 4 Oby. 3. [הילה "his elders." 187

The development of the suffix in רבילה is similar to that of standard Phoenician. Vocalized [ayh(i)], this suffix is composed of the masc. plural construct ending *ay + third person masc. sing. suffix*- $h\tilde{u} > [h(i)]$. A similar suffix appears in the Uruk incantation as [ayhī] as well as [ehī] in Eastern Aramaic. 188

The development of the Old Aramaic form, 77-, is uncertain. As Degen¹⁸⁹ observed, the theory that this suffix is a compound of *-ayh $\dot{u} >$ *-ayhu > (with syncope of intervocalic he) *-avu >(syncope of intervocalic vodh) *-aw + secondary suffix *-hu > *-awhu > lawh(i)l (via dissimilation)¹⁹⁰ is unfounded. First, there is no example of the syncope of intervocalic he in most Aramaic dialects. 191 Second, the addition of one suffix onto another, in this form, is otherwise unattested in the NWS dialects. Consequently, another explanation which would align the Old Aramaic form with those of the other NWS dialects is in order.

It is possible that the form of the suffix developed along the following lines: *-ay-hū > (via regressive assimilation) *-aw-hū > (dissimilation of u-u) [awhi]. The he, then, is part of the original form of the suffix and is not a secondary addition. If this development is correct, it not only conforms with generally accepted NWS phonetic changes but also follows the same development as forms of this suffix in the other NWS dialects.

SAMALIAN: There were two forms of this suffix in Samalian depending upon the syntax of the noun. When the noun was in the nominative case, the suffix was ה- [ūh(i/u)] (e.g., איחה ['ayḥūh(i/u)] "his brothers" [H 30; P 17]). When, however, the noun was in the oblique case, the suffix was יה [īh(u/i)] (e.g., איחיה ['ayhīh(u/i)] "his brothers" [H 27.28] and ביומיה [biyawmīh(u/i)] "in his days" [P 9]).

The presence of the yodh on oblique forms suggests that the suffix he began a new syllable. Since yodh was written for [i] only in open syllables, ¹⁹² the *he* of the suffix could not have closed the preceding syllable (i.e. lacking a vowel) but rather began a syllable, leaving the preceding syllable open. If, however, the final vowel had been long, it would have appeared in the orthography. Thus the vowel following the *he* was probably short. The quality of the vowel is unknown.

AMMONITE: No evidence. Dion¹⁹³ suggested that the masc. plural construct noun + third person masc. sing. suffix appears in the Amman Citadel inscription, I. 4, as אין יישוֹלה 'with his enemies.' Yet the last legible letter of this line is probably p, not הֹה '194 This word, then, is not an example of the third person masc. sing. suffix on a masc. plural noun.

DEIR ALLA: רוה: [awh(u/i)], as in אלוה ['ilawh(u/i)] "to him" (I 1.4) and possibly בפוה [kappawh(u/i)] "his palms" (IXa 3). The suffix in the Deir Alla dialect apparently developed in the same manner as that of Old Aramaic. 195 It is unclear, however, whether a final (short?) vowel was present in the Deir Alla suffix or whether it was already lost.

MOABITE: ה- [ôh(u/i) (?)], as in מו [yômôh(u/i) (?)] "his days" (Mesha 8) and רשה [rōsôh(u/i) (?)] "its chiefs" (Mesha 20); 196 cf. the feminine counterpart in שעריה "its gates" (Mesha 22), with yodh in the suffix. The suffix probably developed from $yômay-h\ddot{u} > *-aw-h\ddot{u} > (contraction of the diphthong) [ôh(u/i) (?)]. This development most closely resembles that of Old Aramaic and Deir Alla. 197$

EDOMITE: No evidence.

אני הוא (Yavneh-Yam 1:13). This suffix may also appear in the northern Hebrew text of Gezer, ירחוי "his months" (Gezer Cal. 1.1.2). Like other NWS forms, this suffix probably developed from *-ay-hū̄ > *-aw-hū̄ > *-aw-wu > *-aww > *-aw > (via stress-lengthening) [āw]. It is possible, of course, that the suffix developed differently in northern and southern Hebrew, 2000 although such a difference is not apparent in the epigraphic texts.

Lemaire²⁰¹ has suggested that another form of this suffix, היה, appears in מצריה "his enemies" (el-Qom 3;3). The text of this passage, however, is uncertain. Dever²⁰² read the form as מארר "cursed," which appears to fit the context better. There is, then, no evidence for a form of the third person masc. sing. suffix on masc. plural nouns other than the single 1- [āw].

With the exception of the conservative form of this suffixed noun in Samalian, ²⁰³ the first-millennium NWS dialects form two major groups characterized by shared innovations. Standard Phoenician and the Aramaic dialect of Tell Halaf constitute one group whose suffixed noun developed from *-ayhū. The other group—most Old Aramaic dialects, Deir Alla, Moabite, Hebrew, and possibly Byblian—exhibit a suffixed form derived from *-awhū. ²⁰⁴ Within this second group, Hebrew and (?) Byblian exclusively share the progressive assimilation of he in *-awhū > *-awwu. The form of this suffixed noun in Ammonite and Edomite is unknown.

10c. The third person masculine plural.

BYBLIAN: הם -* [êhum (?)], as inferred from the later Byblian form עלהם [falêhum (?)] "upon them" (Yehawmilk 6).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: D1-* [ênōm], as inferred from its appearance only after vocalic endings in sing, nouns. 205 Cf. the third person plural objective suffix [nōm] following long vowels.

ARAMAIC: בתיהם [ayhum], as in בתיהם [bâttayhum] "their houses" (Sf. II C 16) and ימיהם [yawmayhum] "their days" (Sf. II C 17). The connecting vowel of the masc. plural construct, [ay], remained uncontracted.

SAMALIAN: No evidence, AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: החם-* [ay/ê-hem], as inferred from the forms in the Masoretic text. The connecting vowel was [ê] in the northern dialect and [ay] in the southern, conforming with the rules of phonetic change in these dialects. 206 The [e] of the suffix in the Masoretic form was transferred from the fem. plural form *hinna. Thus, masc. plural *humu lost [u] and adopted *i from the fem., producing [hem]. Cf. similarly the second person plural perfect suffix [tem] < *-tum.

All attested forms of the third person masc. plural suffix attached to plural nouns are derived from *-ay-hum, with some variations due to regular phonetic change. Thus [ayhum] appeared in

Old Aramaic, and [êhum (?)] (with diphthong contraction) in Byblian Phoenician. In standard Phoenician, the original *he* changed into *nun* after a vowel, so that this form appeared as [ênom]. The tonic vowel also lengthened in this suffix.

In Hebrew dialects, the connecting vowel was [ay] and [ê] in southern and northern regions, respectively. The suffix itself was pronounced [hem], on analogy with its fem. plural counterpart. This particular analogy is idiosyncratic to Hebrew.

11a. The objective suffixes: The third person masculine singular. 207

שתה (אַנּהַבּה In the oldest text, the suffix was ה- [hū], as in שתה [šōtahū] "he placed him" (Ahirom 1) $< *šāta + hū.^{208}$ In later Byblian, the suffix appeared as ז- in י'may she preserve him" (Yehawmilk 9); the form was pronounced, perhaps, [taḥawwēw] < *-êhū. The identical change in the form of this suffix occurred also in the possessive suffix, third person masc. sing., in this dialect: π - > 1-. 209

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: Two forms of this objective suffix were used in complementary distribution. When the verb ended in a vowel, the suffix was $-[y\bar{u}/\bar{\imath}]$, as for example ישבי [šōttīyū/ $\bar{\imath}$] "I made him" (Kilamu 11) < *šāttī + hū and the later form ישבי [yôšibnūyū/ $\bar{\imath}$] "we caused him to dwell" (Eshmunazor 17) < *yôšibnū + hū. When the suffix was attached to the final consonant of a verb, it appeared as $-\emptyset$ [ô], as may be inferred by the analogy with the possessive suffixes, and by the Punic forms ברכא [barakō]²¹⁰ "he blessed him" (NP 8:2, etc.) and יברכא [yibrukō (?)] "he will bless him" (KAI 98:4/5); cf. the transcriptions BAPAX Ω "he blessed him" (KAI 175:4/5) and felo "he made it" (Or Ant 2:83,5), as well as the Phoenician form יברך "may he bless him" (KAI 38:2, etc.). ²¹¹ The possessive and objective suffixes of the third person masc. sing., then, followed the same pattern of complementary distribution: $-\emptyset$ [ô] followed consonants, and - [yū/ $\bar{\imath}$] followed vowels.

ARAMAIC; ה- [ih (?)], as in היטבתה [hayṭibtih (?)] "I made it better" (Br-Rkb 1:12) and תשריה "may you release him" (Sf. III 18). In those verbal forms derived from "long" imperfects, the suffix was ה-, as for example יקחלנה "he will kill him" (Sf. I B 27), יהנטנה "he will remove it" (Zkr B 20), and יעברנה "he hates him" (Sf. III 17).

אברות ((?)], as in בכיה "they bewailed him" (P 17), תהרגה "you will kill him" (H 33), and לכתשה "may they pound him" (H 31). This suffix was attached to both vocalic and consonantal endings of the verb.

AMMONITE: No certain evidence. Cross²¹² read אבחר "I shall extirpate him" in Amman Cit. 3. Kutscher213 read (?) אכחדון "I shall destroy him." Either reading would require an objective suffix 1- or אהר. Since the reading of the line, and form, are so uncertain, it is prudent to abstain from drawing any morphological conclusions from this text alone.214

DEIR ALLA: ן- [(?)], as in ישנאן "you hate him" (II 10) and possibly "you will cover him" (II 10).215 The context and text, however, are broken.

MOABITE: ה- [(?)]. 216 as in ייגרשה "and he expelled him" (Mesha 19), ייחלפה "and he succeeded him" (Mesha 6), and (fem.) החרמתה "I consecrated it" (Mesha 17). There is no example of this suffix on nonconsecutive imperfect verbs in the extant texts.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The suffix n-[ô] < *-ahū followed consonantal endings, as for example לקחה [laqahô] "he took him" (Lach. 4:6) < *lagah + ô and שלחה [šəlāhô] "he sent it" (Lach. 3:21). הור [hū] followed accented vowels, as for example ויעלהו [way-ya'léhū] "and he brought him up" (Lach. 4:6/7). A third suffix, 12-[énnū] < *-en-hū, appeared in the epigraphic texts in שלחט "send it!" (Arad 4:2), in which nun (cf. Aramaic and, probably, Deir Alla) preceded the ending [hū]. It has also been suggested in Yavneh-Yam 1:14 לא ייחד "do not drive him away,"217 although the reading is disputed.218

The NWS dialects exhibit two forms of the third person masc. sing, objective suffix. Perfect verbs took h-forms of the suffix (with regular phonetic variants), as in Old Byblian, standard Phoenician. Old Aramaic, Samalian, Moabite, and Hebrew. Other verbal forms. however, took two suffixes—an n-form and a h-form. When the verb originally ended in a vowel, as in the "long" imperfect or long imperative, the *n*-form was used; the *n*-form appeared in Old Aramaic (-נה), Hebrew (י-נה), and probably Deir Alla (ז-?). In those verbs originally ending in a consonant, the h-form was used, as in the Old Aramaic jussive and Moabite consecutive imperfect. This distribution between n- and h-forms is apparently Proto-Semitic.²¹⁹

In those dialects, however, which have lost the morphological distinction between indicative and jussive/"short" imperfects. the *n*-form of the third person masc. sing. objective suffix has apparently disappeared as well. Thus standard Phoenician and Samalian had only *h*-forms. The other dialects, perhaps including Moabite, had both forms.

11b. The third person masculine plural.

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: Like the possessive suffix, the objective suffix was מור [ōm] < *-a-humu when attached to consonants (e.g., מערם [yôridōm] "(I) exiled²²¹ them" and מערם [yôsibōm] "(I) made them settle" [Karatepe A I 20 (both inf. abs. + suffix)]), and מור [nôm] following vowels (e.g., ענתנם ['inne/itī-nōm (')] "I subdued them" [Karatepe A I 20], שתנם [šōttī-nōm] "I placed them" [Karatepe A I 16], and the later form מגרנם [yasgirū-nōm] "they will deliver them up" [Eshmunazor 21]). The two forms of this suffix were in strict complementary distribution.

ARAMAIC: ה-[hum], as in הרקהם "you will appease them" (Sf. III 6; cf. ארקהם "I shall appease them" [Sf. III 6]), ההשבהם "you will bring them back" (Sf. III 6), and ההסכרהם "you will hand them over" (Sf. III 2). This suffix ה- was attached to verbs ending in both consonants and vowels; the suffix, then, had achieved a frozen form.

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: No evidence. Puech and Rofé²²² have tentatively identified a third person plural objective pronoun in Amman Citadel, 1. 3 אבחרם, where p-represents this suffix. Yet the reading and interpretation of this line are uncertain and cannot provide the basis for any dialectal conclusions.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.223

MOABITE: יאסחב.הם [hum (?)], as in יאסחב.הם ''and I dragged them'' (Mesha 18). Because of the presence of the word divider, the objective suffix was probably a form of the independent pronoun in Moabite;²²⁴ the plural suffix had not yet been fused to the verb.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The only suffix attested in the epigraphic texts is מהבקידם (am), which followed a consonant, as for example ייחבקידם 'and he will hand them over' (Arad 24:14/15) and בתחם [n^atatt-âm] "you have

given them "225 (Arad 40:10). There is no suffix corresponding to the Aramaic-Moabite ph- or to an *n*-based form. In BH, this suffix phase also attached directly to vocalic endings, 226 although the vocalization was different.

Dialectal divisions based upon the form of the third person plural objective suffix are easily delineated. The old form an-appeared in Aramaic and Moabite; a form in and the standard Phoenician (one form) and Hebrew. These four dialects, then, constituted one dialect group which used the base *h-m for the objective suffix; Hebrew and standard Phoenician formed a subgroup within this group.

The other standard Phoenician suffix, [nom], was apparently unique. Yet the identical nun is found in third person sing, possessive and objective suffixes in several NWS dialects. On the objective suffix, the nun occurred in Aramaic, Deir Alla, and in Hebrew. On the possessive suffix, the nun appeared in standard Phoenician (on prepositions). In each instance, moreover, the n-form followed an original vowel; cf. also the possessive suffix [nom] in standard Phoenician. On the one hand, then, the objective suffix [nom] was isolated among the NWS dialects. On the other, the intrusive nun was common to these dialects and survived sporadically in different forms of the NWS third person suffixes. The nun was a common inheritance of all the NWS dialects, at least in the third person objective suffixes.

12. Numerals: The endings of the cardinal decades.

PHOENICIAN: ם-, as in תשעם "90" (Bronze Spat. 2).

ARAMAIC: ן-. as in שלשן "30" (KAI 219:3).

SAMALIAN: י-, as in הרג.שבעי 70 איזי' and he killed seventy brothers of his father'' (P 3). The ending i- resembles those Semitic languages which form the decades by adding a dual suffix $*\bar{a}$ (nominative)/*ay (oblique) onto the single digits; in Akkadian and Ethiopic, the decades end in $[\bar{a}]$, and in ESA they end in -(h)y. The Samalian form is very similar to that of ESA. It is possible, though, that the final yodh, instead of marking the oblique dual [ay], was the sign of the masc. plural oblique $[\bar{i}]$, corresponding to nominative $[\bar{u}]$; since ''70' was the object of the verb, the decade may

have been formed by adding a masc. plural ending onto the digit, 1-, which would be 1- in the oblique case. Nonetheless, the parallel between warm and the Akkadian/Ethiopic forms, especially the ESA form, is highly suggestive.

AMMONITE: No evidence.
DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: ן-, as in ארבען "40" (Mesha 8), חמשן "50" (Mesha 28), and שלשן "30" (Mesha 2).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: p*-, as inferred from the form of the decades in BH.

Within the Semitic languages, there are two endings of the cardinal decades. 230 The decade can end in the nominal-adjectival masc. plural morpheme, as in Arabic, Hebrew, and Aramaic. Alternatively, it can end in the nominal-adjectival dual morpheme on analogy with the dual ending of "20," as in Akkadian, Ethiopic, and ESA. Most of the NWS dialects follow the model of Arabic; Phoenician, Aramaic, Moabite, and Hebrew added the masc. plural morpheme onto the digit to form the decade. The other NWS dialect which preserves a decade, Samalian, appears to have followed the pattern of Akkadian, Ethiopic, and ESA by adding the dual *ā/*ay onto the corresponding digit. It is possible, however, that the final yodh on the Samalian form was the masc. plural oblique morpheme whose nominative would have been waw. The discovery of a nominative decade in this dialect would resolve this problem.

13. The coordinating conjunction(s).

PHOENICIAN: -1 (passim).

ARAMAIC: Two conjunctions appeared in this dialect, -1 "and" (passim) and -2 "thus, therefore" (Sf. II B 4.6; Br-Rkb 1:18).

SAMALIAN: Two conjunctions appeared in this dialect, -1 "and" (passim) and (k) "thus, therefore" (H 3.17, etc.; P 22). The meaning and function of these two conjunctions were identical to those of Old Aramaic.

AMMONITE: -1 (passim).

DEIR ALLA: -1 (passim).

MOABITE: -1 (passim).

EDOMITE: -1 (Ost. 2070 Rev. 3).232

HEBREW: -1 (passim).

The NWS dialects of the first millennium B.C.E. possessed two conjunctions, *wa "and" and *pa "thus, therefore." *wa occurred in all NWS dialects, as well as in all Semitic languages in general. *pa is a common West Semitic innovation. 233 Within the first-millennium NWS dialects, however, *pa is found only in Old Aramaic and Samalian. It was lost in Phoenician, Hebrew, and apparently in Ammonite, Deir Alla, Moabite, and Edomite as well. In these latter four dialects, however, the absence of *pa in the extant texts may be accidental.

14. Negations: Nonexistence.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence. ARAMAIC: ליש (Br-Rkb 1:16). SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: און [³ên] (Mesha 24).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: px ['ayn], as in Silwan B 1, Lach. 4:5.7/8 (plus pronominal suffix). The word is attested only in the southern dialect; in the North, the pronunciation would have been *['ên]. 235

Attestations of a term of nonexistence in these three NWS dialects suggest that the dialects can be divided into two groups. In Old Aramaic, the term www used, literally translated "there is not," composed of the negative [lā] + "there is." In Moabite and Hebrew, another term was used ['ên, 'ayn]. *'ayn, however, is not an exclusively shared lexical innovation, since it also appears in Ethiopic and Ugaritic. 237

15a. Particles: The nota accusativi. 238

PHOENICIAN: איר, only in the Karatepe inscription during this period (Karatepe A I 3, III 3.14/15, etc.). The precise vocalization of this particle is unknown.

ARAMAIC: אית (Zkr B 5.16, etc.; Sf. I B 32, II C 5.5, etc.).

SAMALIAN: m (H 28), only with possessive suffix. If this particle is related to Aramaic [l³wāt] "toward" and [k³wāt] "as, like,"239 the pronunciation of the Samalian particle may have been *[wāt].

AMMONITE: No evidence. Although van Selms²⁴⁰ believed he isolated a nota accusativi -n in Cit. 5, the interpretation of the passage is too uncertain to provide evidence for the existence of this particle.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

молыте: ж (Mesha 5.6.7, etc.). The vocalization of the Moabite particle is unknown. The absence of a medial vodh, however, separates the form of the Moabite particle from its Phoenician-Aramaic counterpart.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: את, with both nominal (e.g., Arad 16:4, 24:16, etc.) and pronominal objects (nk + suffix, as in Arad 24:13; Lach. 3:12, 12:4 [partially restored], etc.).²⁴¹

The forms of the nota accusativi in NWS are composed of pronominal suffix + *āt. 242 Phoenician-Aramaic אית is derived from *iva + *āt; cf. Akk. vāti and Arabic ['īvā-]. Samalian m developed from *hu + *at > *huat (cf. Ugaritic hwt) > *uat > [wat]. Hebrew and Moabite, however, show a shared innovation. The old אית lost intervocalic yodh, producing nx.243

The conditional particles.

שאב אילו (Ahirom 2), cognate either to Hebrew אילו אילו אם or to EA allū. 245 Another conditional particle, אמ, is attested in Bronze Spat. 3:246 in that context, we may have functioned as an oath particle.247

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: אם (e.g., Karatepe A III 12.14.17, etc.). ARAMAIC: זה (e.g., Sf. 1 B 28.31, etc.; Nerab 1:11).

SAMALIAN: There appear to have been two conditional particles in Samalian. One particle, ax, introduced verbal protases, whether the verb were imperfective (H 20 [?]) or perfective (H 29). The other conditional particle, הנו introduced nominal protases (H 30.31.31 [?]). The particle או, however, in הן.אם.שמת "now if I put" (H 29), is not a conditional particle, comparable to Aramaic [hen]. 248 but is the interjection "behold" used to reinforce the condition.²⁴⁹

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: 177 (II 10.10).

MOABITE: No evidence. The particle והן. עשתי וו (Kerak frag. 3) is not the conditional "if" but the interjection "behold." 250

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Two conditional particles were employed in epigraphic Hebrew, אמ was followed by a perfect verb (e.g., Yavneh-Yam 1:11) or nominal predicate (e.g., Arad 2:7, 21:8 [?]). The other particle, וח, is found with perfect verbs (e.g., Arad 21:3, 40:9). The two particles, then, appeared in identical contexts and were probably semantically and grammatically equivalent.

The NWS dialects employed several conditional particles.²⁵¹ Some used the particle שא —Old Byblian (one possibility), standard Phoenician, Samalian (one possibility), and Hebrew (one possibility). Others used m—Old Aramaic, Samalian (one possibility, with suffixed 1-), the Deir Alla dialect, and Hebrew (one possibility). Old Byblian alone used a second particle, אל, which did not spread to other NWS dialects. The distribution of mx and m here and throughout the Semitic languages does not yield any classificatory scheme. The particle אל, however, may have been a Phoenician innovation.

Two conditional particles appeared in a single dialect. In Samalian, there appears to have been a syntactic and grammatical distinction between אם and חוד. In Hebrew, both particles interchanged freely. In Old Byblian, however, the evidence is insufficient to determine the grammatical relationship between אם and אם.

15c. The directive-terminative he.

PHOENICIAN: Not attested (?).

ARAMAIC: Not attested. SAMALIAN: Not attested. AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Not attested. While Hackett²⁵² tentatively identified three examples of this "adverbial h," none is certain. The final he in לילה "night" (1 1), whatever its origin, 253 was part of the word itself; cf. the same word in Aramaic. Moabite, and Samalian (with a different form), dialects which lacked the terminative he. The final he in שמה "there, thither" (II 13.14) is a reflex of the old adverbial *-at, as in Ugaritic tmt "there, thither." Finally, the form and meaning of אחראה "in the future (?)" (I 2) are uncertain.255 There is no unambiguous example of this particle in the Deir Alla dialect.

MOABITE: Not attested (?). EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: This particle appears in, for example, מצרימה "toward Egypt" (Lach. 3:16), העירה "toward the city" (Lach. 4:7, 18:2), and "toward the house" (Arad 17:2).

The terminative *he* is an old NWS suffix, found already in Ugaritic. ²⁵⁶ According to the present evidence, Hebrew alone preserved this particle. Yet its absence from other NWS dialects, particularly from the extant Phoenician and Moabite texts, may be coincidental.

15d. The precative lamedh.

PHOENICIAN: Not attested. Although Albright²⁵⁷ and others²⁵⁸ have identified the precative *lamedh* in ''may her womb be opened' (Arsl.T. 1:22–24), the correct reading of the text is אל "let it not be opened." If the latter reading is followed, the text conforms to regular Phoenician grammatical usage, ²⁶⁰ and the only instance of the precative *lamedh* in this dialect is removed.

ARAMAIC: The precative lamedh appears only in the Tell Fekh. text, as for example להוי 'may he be' (l. 12), ללקטו 'may they gather' (l. 22), לשוי 'may he put' (l. 11), etc. 261 Its appearance only in the eastern Syro-Palestinian area—i.e. Fekheriyeh, and the Mesopotamian Assur ostracon—suggests an early isogloss between eastern and western Old Aramaic. As in Old Aramaic, the precative lamedh did not appear in later, western Aramaic dialects either. 262

SAMALIAN: The precative lamedh regularly appeared in this dialect, as for example in לתגמרו "may he prevent" (H 24), יmay they be destroyed" (H 30), לכתשנה "may they pound her" (H 31), etc.

AMMONITE: No evidence. In Sir. 6, however, the jussive verbs, מל משמח "may he rejoice and be happy," lack the precative lamedh. This passage may indicate that in Ammonite the precative lamedh did not occur. The evidence, however, is meager.

DEIR ALLA: Not attested.
MOABITE: Not attested.
EDOMITE: No evidence.
HEBREW: Not attested.

The distribution of the precative *lamedh* between East and West Semitic indicates that it was common to the entire Semitic language group. ²⁶³ Within first-millennium NWS, it was absent from all but

two dialects. It appeared only in Samalian and Fehkeriyeh (= eastern?) Aramaic. In later times, this feature became characteristic of eastern Aramaic as a dialect group. ²⁶⁴

16a. Verbal conjugations: The t-stem of the qal.

BYBLIAN: Gt (infixed t-), as in אחתחה "may it be removed" (Ahirom 2) and "may it be overturned" (Ahirom 2).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: No evidence. Either the t-stem of the qal is not attested due to the paucity of Phoenician texts, or the N-stem had replaced the passive t-stem.

ARAMAIC: Two *t*-stems of the *peal* are attested in Old Aramaic. In most Aramaic-speaking communities, it was the tG (prefixed *t*-), as in יחחדה "it can be seen" (Sf. I A 28), "it can be heard" (Sf. I A 29), and יחחדה "it is closed" (Nerab 2:4); the tG survived into later Aramaic dialects. "it is closed" (Nerab 2:4); the tG survived into later Aramaic dialects. In the Aramaic speech form of Tell Fekheriyeh, however, there is one clear example of the Gt (יחחדי 'may it be cut off" [Fekh. 23]). "had in Sf. I C 24/25—יחחדי "may a name not be acquired by him"—Rosenthal has tentatively identified another example of the Gt. "This conjugation is not attested in any other Aramaic dialect."

SAMALIAN: The only possible evidence of this conjugation is the form יתמר ב'it is said in . . ." (H 10) which, according to some, 270 is derived from יתמר*. The aleph would have assimilated to the preceding taw, as occurs in various forms in Aramaic. 271 Yet such an uncertain example does not constitute proof that the tG stem appeared in Samalian. Additional evidence is needed in order to pronounce judgment.

AMMONITE: No evidence. $Cross^{272}$ analyzed the form י"you are feared" (Cit. 6) as a Gt conjugation of * t^cy "to gaze; offer." The same form occurs in Ugaritic, where t^c means "to fear," and where the Gt conjugation is frequently found. Yet a t^c and conjugation of this verb is found as י"to fear" in Hebrew, Phoenician, and probably in Ugaritic as well; cf. especially the form בשתעם "feared" in Karatepe A II 4, where the triradical root * t^c takes the t^c niphal conjugation. Thus, this form is not a Gt. t^c A Gt conjugation in Ammonite remains unproven.

DEIR ALLA: tG (?), if יתמלך "he will seek advice" (II 9) is the passive of the simple conjugation.²⁷⁴ Two other examples of the tG, cited by Hoftijzer²⁷⁵—אתנתק "I am/he was pulled down (?)" (Vc 4)

and אתיחרו "they have gathered" (I 5)—are most probably tD conjugations. "They have gathered" (II 5)—are most probably tD conjugations. "They have gathered" (II 9) is morphologically uncertain. If the form is tD of $*y^c s$, the first radical is missing; the derivation of this form from a middle weak root²⁷⁷ is not convincing since it presents morphological difficulties. "The same obstacle would be apparent if the stem were tG (ייתיע*) or Gt (ייתיע*). This form then, remains unexplained. There is only one possible example of a t-stem of the simple conjugation in the Deir Alla dialect.

MOABITE: Gt, as in ואלתחם "and I fought" (Mesha 11.15), הלחם "fight!" (Mesha 32), and בהלתחמה "when he fought" (Mesha 19).

HEBREW: There is no trace of a *t*-stem of the *qal* in epigraphic Hebrew. A few forms in BH reflect an old use of the *t*-stem of the *qal*.²⁷⁹ but this usage disappeared from the language very early.

The NWS dialects formed a *t*-stem of the simple conjugation in two ways. The *t* was either infixed to the root, as in Old Byblian, Sfire- (?) and Fekheriyeh-Aramaic, and in Moabite. The Gt also appears in Arabic and ESA.²⁸⁰ Or the *t* was prefixed to the root, on analogy with the prefixed *t* of the *D*-stem. The tG conjugation was found in most Old Aramaic dialects, and possibly in Samalian and the Deir Alla dialect as well. It is unclear whether standard Phoenician and Ammonite once possessed either a tG or Gt stem which had died out by the time of the extant texts, or whether future excavations will produce a text with such a form. In either case, the present evidence points to an emerging dialectal polarity between those dialects with analogical tG formations and those with Gt conjugations, i.e. between Aramaic and Canaanite dialects. Although the Gt appeared at Tell Fekheriyeh, and possibly at Sfire, it did not survive into later Aramaic dialects.

16b. The presence/absence of the N-stem.

BYBLIAN: No evidence. The presence of a Gt passive conjugation, however, may suggest that one function of the *niphal*, that of the *qal* passive, was usurped by the Gt; thus the *niphal* may have died out of the dialect, as in Aramaic. Or, the few extant Byblian texts have simply not preserved this conjugation; that a *niphal* and Gt conjugation can coexist is proven by Ugaritic and Akkadian,

where both conjugations were used fully. The absence of a niphal in the extant Byblian texts, then, may be either significant or accidental.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: The niphal conjugation was present in this dialect, as in נשתעם "feared" (Karatepe A II 4) and the later form נגולת "I was stolen" (Eshmunazor 2.12).

ARAMAIC: As in other Aramaic dialects, there was no niphal conjugation in Old Aramaic. 281

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: A niphal conjugation may appear in Cit. 6 . תשתע "you are feared among the gods." בבן.אלם "you are feared among the gods." textual since there is no example of a niphal perfect verbal form.

Other suggested examples of *niphal* forms in Ammonite are less convincing. Krahmalkov²⁸³ interpreted אשחת (Sir. 5) as a niphal of the root *šht and translated "shall I be destroyed?" Instead, the form is to be interpreted, with most commentators, 284 as a noun "cistern" comparable to Moabite אשורו "cistern" (Mesha 9.23 [partially restored]); this latter interpretation better fits the context of the inscription. Albright²⁸⁵ found a *niphal* in ילדום "it shall fight" (Cit. 4). But new readings of this passage show that these consonants do not appear and therefore that the form itself does not exist.²⁸⁶ The only possible example of the *niphal* in Ammonite, then, is תשתע "you are feared" in Cit. 6.

DEIR ALLA: The niphal conjugation is present in this dialect, as for example in raw "it moans" (II 12.12).

"to fight "הלתחם MOABITE: No evidence. That the Moabite form הלתחם "to fight" (Mesha 11, etc.) corresponds to BH נלחם suggests that either the niphal conjugation was lost to the Gt (as in Aramaic) or the function of the Gt and niphal had merged.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The niphal conjugation was present in this dialect, as for example in ידשמר "they were sent" (Arad 13:4) and "be" on guard!" (Lach. 3:21).

The N-stem is a common Semitic conjugation. 288 In first-millennium NWS, it was preserved in standard Phoenician, Ammonite (?), the Deir Alla dialect, and Hebrew. It died out in Aramaic, and possibly in Byblian and Moabite too. Whether Samalian and Edomite preserved the *niphal* or not is unknown.

16c. The causative prefix.

BYBLIAN: No evidence. Friedrich and Röllig²⁸⁹ claimed that the Byblian causative was yiphil, like that of standard Phoenician. Yet the examples which they cited, יארך "may they make long" (Yehimilk 3) and תארך "may she make long" (Elibaal 2; Shiptibaal 4), may be derived from a causative hiphil as well;²⁹⁰ cf. for example BH ישמיד "he will annihilate" < יהשמיד. Garbini²⁹¹ adduced one example of a hiphil causative in Byblian. Yet his example, הערית "you/she stripped bare" (Byblos 13:2), is an incorrect reading. One should read, with Cross, 292 (עצמי) "my mouldering bones;" the prefixed he is the definite article. Despite this lack of evidence, however, it is possible that the causative prefix was he, as in the third person sing, pronominal suffix.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: ->, as in ירדוב אנך "I widened" (Karatepe A I 4). Cf. the third person sing, possessive/objective suffix in -(following vowels).

אר ARAMAIC: -ה, as in המלכני 'he made me king' (Zkr A 3), יהסכר "he will hand over" (Sf. III 3), and הרשבני "they made me sit" (Br-Rkb 1:5). There are no examples of an aphel causative in Old Aramaic. 293

SAMALIAN: -ה, as in הושבת "I settled" (H 19) and היטבה "he made it better" (P 9).

AMMONITE: -ה, as inferred from the PN הצלאל (Sir. 2), derived from *nsl, with prefixed causative he.

DEIR ALLA: -ה, as in הקרקת "it chased" (1 15).294

MOABITE: -ה, as in החרמתה "I consecrated it" (Mesha 17), השעני "he saved me" (Mesha 4), and הראני "he made me see" (Mesha 4). EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: -ה, as for example הכי "they struck" (Shiloah 4) and "and he will hand them over" (Arad 24:14/15).

Most first-millennium NWS dialects exhibit the causative prefix he. i.e. Aramaic, Samalian, Ammonite, Deir Alla, Moabite, Hebrew, and possibly Byblian. In standard Phoenician, however, this he became -; cf. the third person sing, suffixes [yū/ī, yā] < *-ihū, *-ihā.²⁹⁵ All these dialects, then, preserved the identical morpheme, although its phonetic shape had changed in standard Phoenician.

The strong verb: Inflection of the perfect. The first person singular.

PHOENICIAN: ח- [tī], as in פעלת [paʿaltī] "I did" (Kilamu 4) and שברת [šibba/irtī] "I smashed" (Karatepe A I 8), etc. For the final vowel [i], cf. Punic כעתבתי "I wrote" (KAI 145:6) and the suffixed form ענחנם "I subdued them" (Karatepe A I 20) (instead of ענחנם*).

In Arsl.T. 2:7, the form נעלח "I have locked" appears. Since this text regularly represents final long vowels, 296 the expected form here should have been נעלתי*. A variety of possibilities may explain this particular form. The spelling may have been historical, following the (contemporaneous) standard Phoenician model of the nonrepresentation of final vowels. Alternatively, the affix is to be vocalized according to the Aramaic pattern, -t(u/i), in which case, this morpheme was borrowed from the mutually intelligible Aramaic dialect spoken at Arslan Tash. Or, perhaps the form is not to be interpreted as "I have locked" but is another form altogether, such as a construct noun. Since, however, this text regularly does represent final (long) vowels, one of the latter two explanations is more probable than the assumption of a historical spelling.

ARAMAIC: ח-[t, tu/i], 297 as in כתבת [katabt(u/i)] "I have written" (Sf. 1 C 2), אחזת ['ahadt(u/i)] "I seized" (Br-Rkb 1:11), and ממת [śāmt(u/i)] "I erected" (Zkr B 13). Had a final long vowel been part of this morpheme, it would have been represented in the orthography.²⁹⁸ But since final short vowels were not represented, the suffix n-does not necessarily indicate vowellessness.²⁹⁹ Its pronunciation was either [t], as in later Aramaic dialects, [tu] as in Arabic, or [ti] as in Amorite.

SAMALIAN: ח- [t, tu/i], as in ישבת [yat/šabt(u/i)] "I sat" (H 8), שמת [śāmt(u/i)] "I put" (H 29; P 20), and הקמת [hagimt(u/i)] "I erected" (H 1.14 [partially restored]). A connecting vowel did not join the verbal base and personal suffix. If such a vowel existed, the long vowel in הקמת would have stood in an open syllable, *ha-qimVt; consequently, *i would have been represented in the orthography. 300 Since *7 was not represented, it must have stood in a closed syllable. Thus n- was not preceded by a vowel. It is also doubtful that a long vowel followed [t] since final long vowels were generally indicated in the orthography. 301

AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: מלכתי [tī], as in מלכתי [malaktī] "I ruled" (Mesha 2/3.28/29 [partially restored]), יספתי [yasaptī] "I added" (Mesha 29), etc.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: תי - [tī], as in קראתי [qārā(²)tī] "I read" (Lach. 3:12; 12:4 [partially restored]), מלכתי [mālaktī] "I ruled" (Arad 88:1), etc.

Another form of this suffix may have been ת- [tī (?)], found in מלחת "I send" (Mur 17 A I) and ברכת "I bless" (Ajrud). The absence of final yodh is surprising. Either n- was pronounced [tī], so that the spelling without yodh is archaic. Alternatively, the morpheme could have been pronounced differently in these two communities than in most others. In view of the unanimity of the Masoretic vocalization [tī], however, the former explanation is preferable.

According to all available evidence, the Proto-West Semitic first person sing. perfect suffix was *-tū. 302 In Phoenician, Moabite, and Hebrew, the first person sing, possessive suffix *i was transferred to *-tū, producing [tī]. In Old Aramaic and Samalian, the old suffix *-tū was retained, shortened to [t], or became [ti] by analogy. Finally, in the Phoenician dialect of Arslan Tash, the suffix might have been pronounced [t(u/i)]. If this interpretation is correct, the Arslan Tash form reflects the penetration of Aramaic into the Phoenician-speaking community; cf. the dual/masc. plural morpheme 1 in Arslan Tash-Phoenician.

17b. The third person masculine singular.

BYBLIAN: [qaṭala], as in פעל [paʿala] "he made" (Ahirom 1; Elibaal 1) and בים [banaya] "he built" (Yehimilk 1; Shiptibaal 1), etc. The preservation of the final weak radical in the orthography indicates that the original, final short [a] of the perfect had not been lost in early Byblian. 303

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: [qaṭal], 304 as in מלך [malak] "he ruled" (Kilamu 2), פעל [paʿal] "he accomplished" (Kilamu 3.3.4), etc.

מדר, (Sf. I A 7), מדר [qatal], as in גור [gazar] "he cut" (Sf. I A 7), מדר [nadar] "he vowed" (Br-Hdd 4), etc. Unlike later Aramaic dialects, the pretonic short vowel in an open syllable had not been reduced in this early period. 305

SAMALIAN: [gatal (?)], as in הרג [harag (?)] "he killed" (P 3.3.7), אכל ['akal (?)] "it ate" (H 9), etc. As in Old Aramaic, the pretonic short vowel in an open syllable was not lost. 306

AMMONITE: [qatål], as in נתן "he gave" (Hesh. Ost. 4:6); cf. בנה "he built" (Cit. 1). It is unclear whether the base form *qutal was retained or whether the second a underwent stress-lengthening to *aatāl.307

DEIR ALLA: [(?)]; cf. התה "he came" (II 14), etc.

MOABITE: [qatal], as in מלך [malak] "he ruled" (Mesha 2), אמר ['amarl 'he said' (Mesha 6), etc. 308

EDOMITE: [qatal] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 7).

HEBREW: [qātal], as in ידע [yāda'] "he knew" (Arad 40:13), נתן [nātan] "he gave" (Arad 17:8), etc. The pretonic short vowel characteristically lengthened in Hebrew.

All forms of the third person masc, sing, perfect qal are derived from *qatala; 309 all changes were, according to the present evidence. phonetic. Old Byblian preserved this old form [gatala]. Standard Phoenician, Old Aramaic, Samalian, and Hebrew (with pretonic vowel lengthening) preserved the old form as well, except that the final short [a] was lost, producing *qatal. Finally, the vocalization of this verbal form in Ammonite, Moabite, and Edomite was either *[qatal] (= standard Phoenician, Aramaic, and Samalian) or *[qaṭāl]. All forms of this verb, then, were phonetic variants of a single base.

17c. The third person feminine singular ending.

BYBLIAN: No evidence from this period. In later Byblian texts, the ending was # [a]310 (see Chapter 2, no. 18b).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: # [a] (see Chapter 2, no. 18b).

ARAMAIC: n- [at] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18b).

SAMALIAN: n- [at] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18b).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: n- [at] (see examples in Chapter 2, no. 18b).

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: *[a], as inferred from the vocalization of the Masoretic text; there is, at present, no example of this verbal form in a strong verb.

Two endings of the third person fem. sing. perfect are attested in the NWS dialects. The old ending [at] was preserved in Aramaic, Samalian, and Deir Alla. A second form, in which *-at had been replaced by [ā], is found in standard Phoenician, Hebrew, and later Byblian. This replacement may have occurred independently in the dialects (cf. the correspondences of *-at) or may have spread by mutual contact.³¹¹

18a. The endings of the imperfect: The second person masculine plural (indicative and jussive).

PHOENICIAN: No evidence.

ARAMAIC: Depending upon the "mood" of the verb, there were two forms of this ending in Aramaic. The indicative mood ended with ן- [ūn], as in משלמן "you fulfill" (Sf. I B 24); cf. the final weak form נות [מא] "you will come" (Sf. I B 32). The volitive mood ended with ז- [ū]; the final weak form משנת "do (not) pay attention" (Sf. III 7). Thus the different endings ז- and ז- reflected a morphological difference in the verb itself.

SAMALIAN: 1- [ū], as in יהרגו ''you kill(ed)'' (P 5). The ending [ū] appeared regardless of the mood of the verb. 316

AMMONITE: No evidence.
DEIR ALLA: No evidence.
MOABITE: No evidence.
EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: ז- [ū], as in the final weak form 'you will do'' (Lach. 6:9).

18b. The third person masculine plural (indicative and jussive).

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: ﴿ [ū], as in יתלם [yitlōn(i)nū]³¹⁷ "they murmured" (Kilamu 10)³¹⁸ and יכבר "may they honor" (Kilamu 14.15). There was no distinction between the ending of the indicative vs. jussive verb;³¹⁹ both ended in [ū].

ARAMAIC: Like the forms of the second person masculine plural, the indicative verb ended in ן- [ūn] (e.g., ימלכן ''they will rule'' [Sf. I B 22], יצרן ''they will guard'' [Sf. I B 8], etc.), ³²⁰ whereas the volitive mood ended in 1- [ū] (e.g., ידמכו ''may they overturn'' [Sf.

I C 21], יצרו "may they guard" [Sf. I C 15], ללקטו "may they gather" [Fekh. 22], etc.). ³²¹ The two different endings reflected, then, two different moods of the verb.

SAMALIAN: ו- [$\hat{\mathbf{u}}$], as in יתעי "they give" (H 4), יקחו "they take" (H 12), and יתמרו "may they be destroyed" (H 30) < + +*.

AMMONITE: ן- [ūn], in ימתן "they will die" (Cit. 2) and possibly ילוף "they will lodge" (Cit. 4). 322 Since these are the only examples of the third person masc. plural imperfect in Ammonite, and since there are no examples of the second person masc. plural imperfect in this dialect, it is unclear whether Ammonite preserved the distinction between indicative and volitive verbs, as in Old Aramaic, or whether the ending [ūn] was frozen and used for both moods. The context of Cit. 2 and 4, although broken, suggests that the mood was not volitive but indicative.

DEIR ALLA: 1- [\bar{u}], as in יימחל 'and they said' (12); cf. the final weak form יידור 'they will see' (II 13). There is no evidence of the ending [\bar{u} n] in this dialect. The said' (12); cf. the final weak form יידור 'they will see' (II 13).

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: ו- [ū], as in יתני ''(may?) they give'' (Ajrud), ימני ''and they flowed'' (Shiloah 4), etc.

The endings of the second and third person masc. plural imperfect were identical. On the basis of the present evidence, the formal distinction between indicative and volitive moods was preserved only in Old Aramaic, represented by $[\bar{u}n]$ and $[\bar{u}]$ respectively. Standard Phoenician, Samalian, Deir Alla, and Hebrew employed $[\bar{u}]$ in both functions. In Ammonite, only an indicative $[\bar{u}n]$ is attested; it is unknown whether the corresponding jussive ended with $[\bar{u}]$, as in Old Aramaic, or the identical $[\bar{u}n]$. In any case, the old indicative *- $\bar{u}n$ survived in Old Aramaic and Ammonite. In standard Phoenician, Samalian, Deir Alla, and Hebrew, the indicative *- $\bar{u}n$ had been replaced by the old jussive ending *- \bar{u} .

18c. The third person feminine plural.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence.

ARAMAIC: יהינקן (y . . . ãn), in both indicative (e.g., יהינקן "they will nurse" [Sf. I A 22, etc.], ימשח[ן] "they anoint" [Sf. I A 21],

etc.) and volitive moods (e.g., יהרגן "may they kill" [Sf. 1 A 24], "may they nurse" [Fekh. 20.20.21] < *li-y*hayn(a)qan, etc.).

SAMALIAN: ין בין [y . . . ān], as in לכתשנה "may they pound her" (H 31). Like Old Aramaic, then, the third person fem. plural imperfect began with yodh and ended with [ān]. Cf., possibly, וו [in H 31.326

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: ן- -ח, as in מצמקן "they will wither (?)" (Xd 2) and "they drip (?)" (II 35.36). These passages, however, are very fragmentary.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: There is no epigraphic attestation of this verbal form. The form attested in BH, however, resembles that of the Deir Alla dialect, [tiqtolna].

Two forms of the third person fem. plural imperfect competed in the NWS dialects. 327 The older form, with prefixed yodh, is attested in Old Aramaic and Samalian. Another form, however, arose in NWS and sporadically throughout the Semitic languages; the third person fem. plural imperfect gained a prefixed taw on analogy with its fem. sing. counterpart. In NWS, this analogy occurred in the Deir Alla dialect, and possibly epigraphic Hebrew as well. Since the t prefix was an analogical formation, it is of no value for classification. 328

19a. The infinitive: The *gal* infinitive construct.³²⁹

PHOENICIAN: לפעל *[liqtol], as inferred from the later forms לפעל ''to make'' (Yehawmilk 11) and liful (לפעל) ''to make'' (Poen. 935). The form of the third person sing. suffix attached to the infinitive, suggests that a (genitive?) vowel connected the verb and suffix. 330

ARAMAIC: Two forms of the inf. construct appeared in Old Aramaic. לקחל [(?)] appeared in, for example, לקחל "to strengthen" (Sf. I B 32.32). Another form, למקחל, is found in Fekh. (e.g., ''to take'' [Il. 9/10] and ''to remove'' [I. 9]) and the Adon letter (e.g., משלח "to send" [I. 7]); this *miqtal infinitive may also appear in Sf. I B 34, but the reading of the form is not certain. 331

SAMALIAN: לקתל [(?)], as in לאכל "to eat" (H 23), and possibly "to erect" (H 10).³³² In final weak verbs, the vocalization of

this infinitive depended upon its construction in the sentence; the inf. bound to a following noun was vocalized one way, whereas the unbound inf. was vocalized another. 333

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: לקטל [(?)], as in לחלק "to perish" (II 11).

MOABITE: לספת infinitive לספת "to add" (Mesha "לקטל "to add" (Mesha 21).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: לקטל [liqtol], as in לשלח "to send" (Arad 40:14), etc.

The infinitive construct with prefixed *lamedh* took two consonantal shapes in NWS. The old form, לקטל, appeared in all dialects for which there is evidence of the form. A new *miatal infinitive appeared in the Fekh. text, Adon letter, and possibly in the Sfire inscription.334 This latter form became the standard infinitive form of the peal in the later Aramaic dialects.

Whereas the *migtal infinitive was characteristic of Aramaic. standard Phoenician and Samalian each displayed a unique feature in the form of the gal inf. construct. In standard Phoenician, the inf. ended in [i] of the genitive case, as for example לשבתנם "that they may dwell" (Karatepe A I 17) vs. ישבם "(I) made them settle" (Karatepe A I 20).335 In Samalian, the pronunciation of the bound inf. construct differed from that of the unbound inf. construct, at least in final weak verbs.

Thus, the infinitive form l + qtl occurred in all attested NWS dialects. The form *migtal was an innovation shared by a few Aramaic-speaking communities. The retention of a vowel between verb and suffix appeared only in standard Phoenician. And the difference between bound and unbound infinitives isolated Samalian from the other NWS dialects.

The D- and causative infinitive construct.

PHOENICIAN: There were no preformatives or suffixes on these derived infinitives, as for example in the later forms לשלם "to pay" back" (KAI 60:7) and לשבח "to make cease" (CIS I 5510:3).

ARAMAIC: Two forms are attested in Old Aramaic. At Tell Fekheriveh, the inf. construct had the same consonantal skeleton as in Phoenician and Hebrew (e.g., לכבר "to multiply" [1, 8], 336 and possibly לשלם "for the well-being" [ll. 8.8.8]); the vocalization of the Fekh. forms is unknown.³³⁷ At Sfire, the derived inf. construct ended in ח-, as for example לחבותהם "to drive them out" (Sf. II B 7) and "to kill my offspring" (Sf. III 16). It is unclear whether the vocalization of this ending was [ūt], as in Syriac, Jewish Aramaic, etc., or [at] as in biblical Aramaic (Dan. 5:12; Ezr. 4:22).³³⁸ The ending [ūt], however, is the more common among the Aramaic dialects.

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: There were no preformatives or suffixes on these derived infinitives, as for example להעיד "to speak" (BH) and להעיד "to warn" (Arad 24:18). The form is that of the imperative + prefixed lamedh.

The first-millennium NWS dialects can be divided into two groups on the basis of the form of the *D*- and causative inf. construct with prefixed *lamedh*. The present evidence indicates that the common form was l + verbal root. This infinitive appeared in Phoenician, Fekh.-Aramaic, and Hebrew, although the pronunciation may have differed from dialect to dialect. A deviation from this pattern appeared only in Sfire-Aramaic, where the inf. construct ended in n-. Thus the Old Aramaic dialect spoken at Sfire, and perhaps most Aramaic-speaking communities in Syria-Palestine, constituted a dialectal island in this respect.

20. The participle: The qal passive.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence. in Karatepe A I 1 is most likely a noun "official, steward." אוני in Karatepe A I 1 is most

ARAMAIC: [qatīl], as inferred from the pronunciation of this form in later Aramaic dialects. The orthography in, for example, פתחה [patīḥā] "opened" (Sf. III 8/9), however, does not suggest any particular vocalization pattern.

SAMALIAN: [qatīl], as in קתילת [qatīlāt] "killed (women)" (P 8).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

moabite: No evidence. The only form that may qualify as a *qal* passive participle, or (Mesha 27), is ambiguous. It may be a passive participle ("destroyed")³⁴¹ or a noun ("destruction").³⁴² In either case, the vocalization is unknown.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: [qāṭūl], as is evident from the *plene* writing in ארור ['ārūr] ''cursed'' (Silwan B 2); cf. ארר ''cursed'' (Beit Lei; Nahal Yishai 1).³⁴³

According to the meager evidence, the *qal* passive participle was formed from two different bases in the first-millennium NWS dialects.³⁴⁴ One base, **qatūl*, appeared in Hebrew (and Canaanite?; cf. EA³⁴⁵); this base also underlies the *qal* passive participle in Ethiopic and Arabic. The second base, **qatīl*, was found only in Aramaic and Samalian.³⁴⁶ The distribution of these forms, then, suggests that **qatūl* was the older, and **qatīl* the more recent, *qal* passive participle. The vocalization of this participle in the other dialects is not known.

21a. פ״ר verbs: The *qal* imperfect of ישב "to sit, dwell" and ידע "to know."

PHOENICIAN: Forms such as ישב "he will sit" (Kilamu 14) appear in these texts. The vocalization is not known, however.

ARAMAIC: [yattib],³⁴⁷ as in ישב [yattib] "he sits" (Sf. III 17). It is characteristic of the Aramaic dialects that the initial radical of and יחיע was lost, and that the second radical was doubled; this doubling occurred in the imperfect, infinitive, and nominal derivatives.³⁴⁸

SAMALIAN: *[yattib, yaššib], as inferred from the nominal form משב "throne" (H 8.15, etc.). 349 Since the yodh was lost, the second radical was probably doubled (vs. מושב*, following BH); such doubling presumably occurred in the imperfect as well.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: The form ישב "and he dwelt" is preserved in Mesha 8.19. Its vocalization is unknown.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: *[yēšeb, yĕda^c], as inferred from the vocalization in BH.

In the Aramaic dialects, the imperfect, infinitive, and nominal derivatives of ישב* "to sit, dwell" and ידע "to know" exhibit loss of the initial weak radical as well as doubling of the second radical. This doubling also occurred in Samalian. In Hebrew, gemination did not occur, but the prefixed vowel was lengthened. There is no evidence for the vocalization of these forms in the remaining NWS dialects.

21b. The *gal* infinitive construct ending.

PHOENICIAN: ח-, as in לדעת "(to) know" (Ahirom Graff, 1), לשבת "to dwell" (Karatepe A I 17), and לתת to give" (Karatepe A III 4) < *vin.

ARAMAIC: 40, as inferred from the later Aramaic dialects, as for example Syriac [(la)mettab] "to sit" and Mandaic מיתאב "to sit."

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: ח-, as in לדעת "to know" (II 17).

MOABITE: ח-, as in לספת "to add" (Mesha 21).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: ת-, as in כצאתי "when I left" (Arad 16:3), as well as "to sit, dwell." לשבת BH forms like לדעת "to know" and לשבת "to sit, dwell."

According to the available evidence, the via gal inf. construct had two endings in NWS. It could end in \$\mathcal{H}\$, as inferred for Old Aramaic. Or it could end in n-, as in Phoenician dialects, the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew. The dialectal status of Samalian, Ammonite, and Edomite, in this respect, is unknown.

22a. Middle weak verbs: The gal infinitive absolute.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence.

ARAMAIC: הום [hawam (?)] "distraught" in Nerab 2:6, and pos-מותן "dying (?)" in Sf. I B 30.350 In Aramaic, the original biradical root351 had been restructured as a triradical root. The middle weak consonant was then treated as a strong radical letter. 352

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: מת [(?)] "dying" in Cit. 2. The original biradical root was not restructured according to the pattern of the strong, triradical root.

DEIR ALLA: If pw (I 6) is an inf. abs., "place!" 353 the original biradical root appears unmodified in this dialect. 354

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: *[qōm, śōm], as inferred from BH. The original biradical root was unmodified. The vowel [ô] may have arisen on analogy with [ô] of the strong inf. abs. [qāṭōl].³⁵⁵

The evidence of the first-millennium NWS dialects indicates two formations of middle weak qal infinitive absolutes. Ammonite, Hebrew, and (?) Deir Alla formed this inf. from the original biradical root $[q\hat{V}m. \, \hat{s}\hat{V}m]$. In Old Aramaic, the biradical root was recast on the pattern of the strong, triradical root; [hawam, mawat] arose on analogy to [qatal]. This analogical formation was peculiar to Old Aramaic within the first-millennium NWS dialects.

22b. The formation of the D-stem.

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: $p\"{o}lel$, as in ייתלם "they murmured" (Kilamu 10), with prefixed t-.

ARAMAIC: In Fekheriyeh, the form was pālel, as in pɔ "he erected" (Fekh. 10; cf. 1. 11) < *kwn. Another form may have appeared in Sfire, qayyim³57/kawwin, in which the middle radical was treated as a strong consonant and was doubled like all pael verbs. Admittedly, the only example of this formation—יעורן" "they will be aroused (?)" (Sf. II B 4 [pual])³58—is in a broken passage and can be interpreted differently. Nevertheless, the qayyim/kawwin formation survives throughout all the Aramaic dialects. The pālel, however, largely died out. 360

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: Evidence uncertain. The participle מטבב "surrounding" in Cit. 2 may be either a pôlel of a middle weak verb or a D-stem of an ע"ע root. Comparison with BH admits of either alternative.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. Hackett³⁶¹ argued that יתעץ "he will seek counsel" (II 9) is a tD stem of $*^c w$, Yet if the root were middle weak, a tD stem would appear as *יתערץ* (pōlel) or as *יתערץ* (kawwin); these are the only two possible formations in NWS. Fur-

ther, *'ws is a secondary root and appears only in BH. יחעץ cannot be a tD of *'ws.

MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: *polel, as inferred from the form found in Masoretic Hebrew.

The formation of the *D*-stem of middle weak roots divides the NWS dialects into two groups. In Sfire-Aramaic (?), and all later Aramaic dialects, the form was *qayyim/kawwin*; as in Arabic, the middle weak radical was treated like a regular, strong consonant and underwent consonantal gemination characteristic of the *pael*. In standard Phoenician, Fekh.-Aramaic, and Hebrew, the *D*-stem of middle weak verbs merged with the *pālel/pōlel* conjugation. ³⁶² The distribution of this merger—Ugaritic, ³⁶³ Phoenician, Hebrew, and Fekh.-Aramaic—suggests that it occurred sporadically throughout NWS; ³⁶⁴ its appearance in these dialects may be due, in part, to parallel, independent development.

23a. Final weak verbs: The *qal* first person singular perfect.

PHOENICIAN: [banêtī], as in the late form σων "I built" (Eshmunazor 4, etc.). Evidence of the second root vowel appears in the Punic form caneth "I acquired" (Poen. 932),³⁶⁵ in which [ê] was contracted from *ay. The proto-form of this Phoenician verb, then, was *banay-tī > [banêtī].³⁶⁶

ARAMAIC: [banayt(u/i)], as in בנית "I built" (Zkr B 10, etc.; Br-Rkb 1:20). Like Phoenician, then, the proto-form of this verb was *banay-t(u/i).

SAMALIAN: (vocalization unknown), as in במיח "I built" (H 14), and probably הייז 'I became/let fall' (P 5). It is uncertain whether this form arose from *banay + *t(u/i) > *[banayt(u/i)] or from *baniy + *tu/i > *[banîtu/i]. The orthography of the Samalian texts admits of either possibility.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: (vocalization unknown),³⁶⁷ as in בנתי "I built" (Mesha 21, etc.) and '"I made" (Mesha 23, etc.). It is impossible to determine whether this form was pronounced [banêtī], according to

the Phoenician-Aramaic model, or [banîtī], according to the Hebrew model.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: [bānîtī], as in יין am guiltless" (Yavneh-Yam 1:11). The second root vowel [î] is inferred from the vocalization of this form in BH; the proto-form of this verb, then, was *baniy-tī > (with contraction) [bānîtī]. 368 Cf. ba-ni-ti" [built" (EA 292:29 [Gezer]). 369

The attested forms of the first person sing. perfect qal of final weak verbs divide the first-millennium NWS dialects into two groups. One group formed this perfect from *banay-, as Old Aramaic [banayt(u/i)] and Phoenician [banêtī]. The other group developed from *baniy-, as Hebrew [bānîtī]. The Hebrew form, then, differed from that of Phoenician and Aramaic by replacing the base *banay-with *baniy-; cf., however, the third person masc. sing. perfect qal [bānâ] "he built" < *banaya. The dialectal affinities of Samalian, Ammonite, Deir Alla, Moabite, and Edomite, in this respect, are undetermined.

23b. The *qal* third person masculine singular perfect.³⁷⁰

BYBLIAN: [banaya], as in בני [banaya] "he built" (Yehimilk 1; Shiptibaal 1) and עלי ['alaya] "he attacks" (Ahirom 2); final short vowels had not been lost at this time.³⁷¹ It is uncertain whether a distinction between *qatala and *qatila perfects was maintained in this dialect.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: [bano], as in tr [hazo] "he saw" (Kilamu 11.11.12) < *baná < *banaa < *banaya.

ARAMAIC: [banâ], as in אתה ['atâ] "he came" (KAI 220:2) and comparable forms in later Aramaic dialects. The form is derived from *banaya > (syncope of intervocalic yodh) [banâ]. 372

SAMALIAN: [banâ], as in אָן [qanâ] "he fashioned" (Kilamu Scept. 1) and אחא [šatâ (?)] "it drank" (H 9).

The vocalization of אחא, however, is uncertain. The final aleph may indicate [šatâ], since final aleph represents [ā] in אז [d/zā(²)] ''this'' (fem. sing.) (H 18) $< *d\bar{a}$. ³⁷³ But if אחא is derived from *šatiya, as for example Syriac [²eštī], final aleph may represent [ê, ē]. ³⁷⁴ As in Old Byblian, then, it is uncertain whether a distinction between *qatala and *qatila final weak perfects was maintained in Samalian.

AMMONITE: [bano], as in בנה [bano] "he built" (Cit. 1).375 Like standard Phoenician, [bano] developed from *banaya > *banaa > *bana > [bano].

DEIR ALLA: [banâ (?)], as in אתה [atâ (?)] "he came" (II 14). MOABITE: [banâ (?)], as in בנה [banâ (?)] "he built" (Mesha 18). EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: [bānā], as in עשה "he has done" (Arad 21:3; Lach. 4:3) and "it, he was" (Arad 111:5'; Yavneh-Yam 1:3; Shiloah 1.6). The vocalized forms in the Masoretic text support this vocalization.

The forms of the *gal* third person masc, sing, perfect of final weak verbs varied according to different phonetic changes in the individual dialects. Thus the old form *banaya was found in Old Byblian. The form [banâ] < *banaya occurred in Aramaic, Samalian, Deir Alla, Moabite, and Hebrew. And finally, a form [bano] < *banâ occurred in the two dialects exhibiting the regular correspondence *\hat{a}:[\displa].\frac{376}{376} standard Phoenician and Ammonite. It is unknown whether the individual dialects distinguished between *aatala and *qatila perfects in these forms of the final weak verb.

The *qal* third person masc. plural perfect.

PHOENICIAN: (vocalization uncertain). The Punic form בנא "they built" (KAI 101:1, etc.) may reflect either [banô] or [banû].³⁷⁷ The vocalization of this form may correspond to either the Aramaic (with contraction) or Hebrew pattern.

ARAMAIC: [banaw], as in אתו (ataw] "they came" (Adon 4). The form in Old (and some later) Aramaic dialects developed from *ba $nay\tilde{u} >$ (syncope of intervocalic yodh) *bana $\tilde{u} >$ [banaw].

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: (vocalization uncertain), as in mr "they saw" (1 14). On the basis of the orthography, this form could be vocalized either [hazaw] or [hazū].

If, however, שתיו (1 10) were a third person masc. plural perfect, "they drank," 378 this form would constitute evidence that the Deir Alla perfect were vocalized like Aramaic; i.e. the form would have been pronounced [šatīw] < *šatiyū, similar to the later biblical Aramaic and Syriac forms. Yet this interpretation violates the orthographic pattern in these texts, for the *yodh* would constitute the only example of an internal *mater lectionis*. Alternatively, if the form were vocalized [šatiyū],³⁷⁹ the final weak radical would have been preserved, contrary to all expectations; in all dialects, this consonantal *yodh* would have syncopated.³⁸⁰ In light of these difficulties, it is preferable to follow Hoftijzer³⁸¹ in interpreting this form as a *qal* masc. plural imperative. It would therefore be vocalized [štayw].³⁸²

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: [bānū], as in מנו "they counted" (Ophel "b" 2^{383}); cf. [hikkū] "they struck" (Shiloah 4). The pronunciation of this form is inferred from its vocalization in the Masoretic text. [bānū] probably developed from a monosyllabic base *ban + verbal suffix $-\bar{u}$.

The evidence for the *qal* third person masc. plural perfect of final weak verbs suggests two different vocalizations and developments. In Old Aramaic, this verb developed from *banay + $-\bar{u}$. In Hebrew, however, it developed from *ban + $-\bar{u}$; the final weak radical was lost and a new biradical base was created. The vocalization of the Phoenician and Deir Alla forms is, however, uncertain; there is no internal evidence which suggests either the Aramaic or Hebraic model. Finally, evidence for the vocalization of this form in Samalian, Ammonite, Moabite, and Edomite is lacking.

23d. The *qal* third person masculine/feminine singular imperfect (indicative and jussive). 384

PHOENICIAN: יגל "he uncovers" (Ahirom 2) and יהה "he wipes out" (Karatepe A III 13), both indicative. There is no evidence that the form of the jussive differed from that of the indicative. The vocalization of either form, however, is unknown.

ARAMAIC: The indicative ended in ה- whereas the jussive ended in ב-386 Examples of the indicative are ייחה "he will be" (Sf. II A 4) and יאתה "he will come" (Sf. I B 28, etc.). The jussive appears in ייחה "may it be" (Sf. I A 25, etc.), ייחה "may it become pregnant" (Sf. I A 21), and י'may he be" (Fekh. 12 [with precative lamedh]); cf. ייעניי and he answered me" (Zkr A 11).

SAMALIAN: Both the indicative and jussive ended in -, as in תלעי 'it becomes weary' (H 32) and ירשי 'he allows' (H 27.28) (both

indicatives), and תשתי "may it drink" (H 22) and אל.ירקי "may he not be pleased" (H 22) (both jussives).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Like Old Aramaic, the indicative ended in ה- and the jussive in יבכה For example, the indicative is attested in יבכה "he was weeping" (14); the jussive appears in אל[.]תהגי "do not remove" (17) and ידרי "may he be satisfied" (II 6).

There is no certain example of a ל"ה consecutive imperfect in the third person singular. For example, מעל (I 4) is not a final weak verb, see but an ע"ע root, "he entered." Similarly, the form איי he saw" (Ve 2) is an uncertain reading on a small, plaster fragment. In any case, the expected form of this consecutive imperfect would be מדווי.

MOABITE: A final weak indicative does not appear in the Moabite texts. The consecutive imperfect, however, appears frequently and always exhibits recessive accent and loss of the final vowel,³⁹¹ as for example ימחל "and he built" (Mesha 10), "and I made" (Mesha 3.9), and ארא "and I saw" (Mesha 7).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The indicative ended in ה- whereas the jussive lost this final syllable. The indicative occurs in יקרה "it befalls" (Arad 24:16), and perhaps ארצה "I will accept" (Beit Lei A 1392). The jussive appears in ירא "that he may be" (Ajrud) and the causative ירא 'may he let see" (Lach. 6:1); the final syllable, however, was lost only in certain persons and under certain syllabic conditions. 393 Whereas both Moabite and Hebrew formed the jussive by apocopation, this apocopation appears to have been more restricted in Hebrew than it was in Moabite. 394

The indicative and jussive of final weak verbs divide the NWS dialects in two respects: First, the preservation or loss of distinction between indicative and jussive. This distinction was preserved in Old Aramaic, the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew. In Phoenician and Samalian, however, this distinction was lost; one verbal form performed these two functions. Second, the formal distinction between indicative and jussive. In Old Aramaic and the Deir Alla dialect, the indicative ended in 7-, and the jussive ended in 2-; the Samalian ending 2- may have been a survival of the jussive, now used in the indicative sense as well. In Hebrew (and Moabite?), the indicative had a final vowel, whereas the jussive lost this vowel and

showed a recessive accent; in Hebrew, however, the apocopation of these verbs was more restricted than in Moabite.

In terms of dialectal groups, the preservation of a morphological distinction between indicative and jussive unites Old Aramaic, the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew as one group, as opposed to Phoenician and Samalian, in which this distinction was lost. There is no evidence, however, suggesting that Phoenician and Samalian jointly innovated. Rather, this loss of morphological distinction developed independently, as in later Aramaic dialects. With respect to the specific shape of the indicative and jussive, Old Aramaic and Deir Alla constitute one group, Moabite and Hebrew another. The dialectal status of Ammonite and Edomite, in these respects, is unknown.

23e. The second/third person masculine plural imperfect ending.396

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: *[ô(n), ū(n)], 397 as inferred from the later form יקצן "they will cut down" (Eshmunazor 22). It is unclear whether the final vowel was $[\bar{u}]$, as in Hebrew, or $[\hat{o}] < *aw$, as in Aramaic dialects.

ARAMAIC: [awn] < *ayūn, 398 as in יחיון "they will live" (Caquot (Sf. I B 32). 400 Cf. the jussive תפני (Sf. I B 32). 400 Cf. the jussive תפני "do (not) pay attention" (Sf. III 7).

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: [-n]. 401 There is no evidence for the vowel preceding final nun.

DEIR ALLA: [aw (?)],402 as in ייאתר "and they came" (1 1) and ירווי "they will see" (II 13). The vocalization of these imperfects can be inferred from שתיו "drink!" in 1 10. Since this form is probably a masc. plural imperative, the yodh represented the diphthong [aw]. 403 A diphthong, then, would have appeared in the masc, plural imperfect forms, following the pattern of these forms in the Aramaic dialects. Admittedly, there is no certain evidence for any particular pronunciation.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: [u], as in יעט "they will act as witnesses" (Yavneh-Yam 1:10.11). The vocalization of these forms in the Masoretic text DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: ח- [ot], as in לעשת "to do" (Arad 1:8).

The ending of the final weak gal infinitive construct divides the NWS dialects into two groups. In standard Phoenician and Hebrew, this inf. ended in n- [ot]. In Old (and later) Aramaic and Samalian, this inf. ended in a vowel. Thus the distribution of these two forms supports the traditional division between a Canaanite and Aramaic branch of NWS.

Within the Aramaic-Samalian group, however, Aramaic had one infinitive form regardless of construction; Samalian exhibited two different forms, depending upon the syntax of the infinitive. While Samalian, then, shared the vocalic ending of the inf. with Aramaic, it uniquely exhibited two different forms of the inf., depending upon construction.

23g. The *gal* masculine plural (undetermined) participle.

PHOENICIAN: *[bonêm], as inferred from בגם "builders" (KAI 100:2), as well as the plene forms בנאם "builders" (KAI 101:6) and "builders" (KAI 140:6). The transcription, bunem, in Or Ant 2:75,3 suggests that the participle was formed in the same pattern as in Aramaic, i.e. * $b\bar{a}nay-m > *b\bar{o}nay-m > [b\bar{o}n\hat{e}m]$; cf. Old Aramaic pm "seers" (Zkr A 12).413

ARAMAIC: [bānay(i)n], as in pm "seers" (Zkr A 12). The vocalization of this participle was either [hazayn] or, with anaptyxis, 414 [hāzayin]. Had the participle been formed like *[hāziyīn], 415 the intervocalic *yodh* would have syncopated to *[hāzîn]. The presence of the *yodh*, then, argues for the diphthong [av]. 416 as in the form underlying the biblical Aramaic masc. plural undetermined participle.

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. FDOMITE: No evidence.

The evidence of three NWS dialects, with respect to the form of the *D*-stem imperfect singular, suggests a twofold dialectal division. In Aramaic and Hebrew (and most other NWS dialects?), the imperfect ended in [ê]. In Moabite, it ended in either [īw] or [û]. While the forms in all these dialects were derived from the identical *yibanniy/wu, a different sequence of phonological rules, as well as different vocalic assimilations, produced the unique vocalization in Moabite. Thus Moabite constitutes a dialectal island with respect to the vocalization of these forms in NWS.

24a. The root הלך*: The qal imperfect.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence.

ARAMAIC: This root is not attested in Old Aramaic. Another root, *hwk, found also in Ethiopic, was the regular verb "to go." 437

SAMALIAN: No evidence.
AMMONITE: No evidence.
DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: יאהלך "and I went" (Mesha 14/15). The root *hlk, then, was treated like a strong verb in the qal imperfect. Whether this form was the original construction, 438 or resulted from the (secondary) restoration of the he on analogy with the perfect, 439 is unknown.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: וילכו "and they flowed" (Shiloah 4), as well as similar forms without the first radical he in BH.

24b. The *qal* imperative.

PHOENICIAN: Perhaps הלך "go (away)!" (fem. sing.) (Arsl.T. 1:21). 440 It is possible, however, that this form is an inf. absolute used as an imperative. 441

ARAMAIC: No evidence. It is reasonable to assume, however, that the imperative, like the imperfect, was formed from *hwk, not *hlk.

SAMALIAN: No evidence.
AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: לכו ''go!'' (masc. plural) (1 5). Like Hebrew, Moabite, and Ugaritic, 442 the imperative of the Deir Alla root *hlk was formed from a secondary root *wlk. The aphaeresis of the initial

radical in the imperative is a regular morphological feature of 1"5 verbs.

MOABITE: לך "go!" (masc. sing.) (Mesha 14). The imperative of the Moabite verb *hlk was formed after the pattern of original 7" verbs.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: לר*, as inferred from the regular form of the imperative of *hlk in the Masoretic text. In Jer. 51:50,443 however, the BH imperative of this root retained the initial he.

Since the form of the imperative and imperfect are morphologically related, 444 the forms of the imperative and imperfect of *hlk should be considered together. One isogloss separates Aramaic from Phoenician-Deir Alla-Moabite-Hebrew; Aramaic employed the verbal root *hwk to signify the verb "to go," whereas the remaining dialects used *hlk/*wlk. In this case, Aramaic was differentiated lexically from these dialects.

Within the Phoenician-Deir Alla-Moabite-Hebrew dialectal unit, further isoglosses can be drawn. In Hebrew, both the imperative and imperfect were formed from the secondary root *wlk; similarly, in Moabite and Deir Alla, the imperative was formed from *wlk. In Phoenician, however, the imperative may have retained the he of the original root *hlk, if הלך in Arsl.T. 1:21 is indeed an imperative. The use of a secondary root *wlk in the imperative and imperfect was an innovation shared by the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew. 445

In Moabite, however, the evidence is split between Phoenician and Hebrew-Deir Alla affinities. Whereas the imperative was formed from *wlk, the imperfect was formed from *hlk. Thus Moabite represents a transitional, dialectal area, with affinities to both morphological extremes of Phoenician (*hlk) and Hebrew-Deir Alla (*wlk). The language of the Mesha inscription reflects a time when the two roots *hlk and *wlk were still competing.446

In short, Aramaic stood apart from the other NWS dialects which attest a verb "to go," since it alone used the root *hwk instead of *hlk/*wlk. Within the *hlk/*wlk region, Phoenician lay at one dialectal end, using *hlk, while Hebrew and the Deir Alla dialect lay at the other, with *wlk. Moabite stood dialectally midway between Phoenician and Hebrew-Deir Alla. In this way, Moabite is a tran-

The form (yiggah) was common to all NWS dialects. It is found in Phoenician, Aramaic, Samalian, the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew. The only deviation appeared in Old Aramaic of Tell Fekheriyeh and, to a lesser extent, Sfire where the first radical, lamedh, was preserved in the imperfect construction. In these dialects, the form [vilgah] was either a common retention or a new analogical formation.

25b. The ending of the *gal* infinitive construct.

PHOENICIAN: ח-*, as inferred from the Punic form הקחת (KAI 76) B 5).

ARAMAIC: -8, for example חלמלקה (Fekh. 9/10).

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence. MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: ח-, for example חחם (Lach. 3:18).

The ending of the infinitive construct of *lah divides the firstmillennium NWS dialects into two groups. In the Aramaic dialect of Fekheriyeh, no suffixal modifications were appended. In Phoenician and Hebrew, a final n-was added to the verb. Thus Fekheriyeh-Aramaic lay at one dialectal extreme (conservative), while Phoenician and Hebrew lay at the other (innovative).

Notes to Chapter 3

1. The features listed in nos. 13-15 are not strictly morphological, but lexical in nature. They are included here since these features would commonly appear in the morphology section of a reference grammar.

2. The reading אנבי in P 19 has now been corrected by Joseph P. Healey, "The Archaic Aramaic Inscriptions from Zinjirli" (Ph.D. disser-

tation, Harvard University, 1981), pp. 62, 86.

- 3. As read by Frank M. Cross, "The Cave Inscriptions from Khirbet Beit Lei," in Near Eastern Archaeology in the Twentieth Century, ed. James A. Sanders (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1970), p. 301.
 - Carl Brockelmann, GvG 1:§104aδ.
- 5. I. J. Gelb, Sequential Reconstruction of Proto-Akkadian, Assyriological Studies, vol. 18 (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1969), p. 177.

- 6. Eduard Y. Kutscher, A History of Aramaic, Part 1, Old Aramaic, Jaudic, Official Aramaic (Biblical Aramaic excepted) (Jerusalem: Akadamon, 1972), p. 24 (in Hebrew).
- 7. Paul-E. Dion, La langue de Ya'udi (Waterloo, Ont.: The Corporation for the Publication of Academic Studies in Religion in Canada, 1974), p. 62.
- 8. See already S. Ronzevalle, "La langue des inscriptions dites de Hadad et de Panammū," in *Florilegium* . . . *Melchior de Vogüé* (Paris: Imprimerie Nationale, 1909), pp. 523-524, See below, no. 2a, for a complete discussion of (π): "this."
- 9. Joseph Naveh, "Old Hebrew Inscriptions in a Burial Cave," *IEJ* 13 (1963): 86. For a different reading, see Cross, in *Near Eastern Archaeology*, p. 302.
 - 10. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§104cα.
- 11. See Stanislav Segert, A Grammar of Phoenician and Punic (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1976), §51.132.
- 12. André Dupont-Sommer. "Une inscription araméenne inédite de Sfiré," BMB 13 (1956): 27, 35.
- 13. J. T. Milik, in Joseph A. Fitzmyer, "The Aramaic Suzerainty Treaty from Sefire in the Museum of Beirut," CBQ 20 (1958): 462.
- 14. See Fitzmyer, "A Further Note on the Aramaic Inscription Sefire III.22," JSS 14 (1969): 198 with nn. 4-6; and Rainer Degen. Altaramäische Grammatik der Inschriften des 10.-8. Jh. v. Chr.. Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, vol. 38/3 (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1969), p. 22 n. 88.
- 15. So, for example, J. Hoftijzer, "Interpretation and Grammar," in Aramaic Texts from Deir 'Alla, ed. J. Hoftijzer and G. van der Kooij. Documenta et Monumenta Orientis Antiqui, vol. 19 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1976), p. 185; Fitzmyer, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," CBQ 40 (1978): 94-95; and Jo Ann Carlton (Hackett), "Studies in the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Allā" (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1980), pp. 48-49, 139.
- 16. So André Caquot and André Lemaire, "Les textes araméens de Deir 'Alla," Syria 54 (1977): 194; P. Kyle McCarter, "The Balaam Texts from Deir 'Alla: The First Combination," BASOR 239 (1980): 52 (one possibility); and Stephen A. Kaufman, "[Review of Hoftijzer and van der Kooij, eds., Aramaic Texts]," BASOR 239 (1980): 73.
- 17. See Ziony Zevit, Matres Lectionis in Ancient Hebrew Epigraphs, ASOR Monograph Series, vol. 2 (Cambridge: ASOR, 1980), p. 28.
 - 18. See Chapter 2, no. 19.
 - 19. See Brockelmann, GvG 1:§104f, for comparative evidence.
 - 20. See no. 1d, below.
- Cf. E. Lipiński, "From Karatepe to Pyrgi. Middle Phoenician Miscellanea," RSF 2 (1974): 49–50.
 - 22. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§104gy.
- 23. Until recently, scholars have restored this form of the demonstrative in the Ur Box, ו[1] ארן "this coffin" (e.g., Zellig S. Harris, A Gram-

mar of the Phoenician Language, American Oriental Series, vol. 8 [New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1936], p. 54; Johannes Friedrich and Wolfgang Röllig, PPG² §113b; and KAI 2:47). Ginsberg ("Ugaritico-Phoenicia," JANES 5 [1973]: 141), however, pointed out that since the third person singular pronominal suffix is in this text, it is unlikely that a specifically Byblian demonstrative should be restored. Thus, he restored מון שון "(this) ivory box," which accords better with the dialect of the text. The Phoenician pronoun, η, then, is found only in the Old Byblian dialect.

- 24. Franz Rosenthal, in Ginsberg, "An Aramaic Contemporary of the Lachish Letters." *BASOR* 111 (1948): 25 n. 4c; followed by Fitzmyer, "The Aramaic Letter of King Adon to the Egyptian Pharaoh," *Bibl* 46 (1965): 54, 44; John C. L. Gibson. *Textbook of Syrian Semitic Inscriptions*, 3 vols. (Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1971–1982), 2:113, 115; and Bezalel Porten, "The Identity of King Adon." *BA* 44 (1981): 36.
- 25. Ronzevalle, in Florilegium . . . Melchior de Vogüé, p. 524; Hans H. Schaeder, Iranische Beiträge I. Schriften der Königsberger Gelehrten Gesellschaft. Geisteswissenschaftliche Klasse, vol. 6, pt. 5 (Halle an der Saale: Max Niemeyer, 1930), p. 241; and Rosenthal, Die Sprache der palmyrenischen Inschriften und ihre Stellung innerhalb des Aramäischen, MVÄG, vol. 41, pt. 1 (Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung, 1936), pp. 49, 51. Cf. Ginsberg, "Aramaic Studies Today," JAOS 62 (1942): 235 n. 29.
- 26. A. van Selms, "Some Remarks on the 'Amman Citadel Inscriptions," BiOr 32 (1975): 7.
- 27. So, for example, Horn, Cross, Albright, Kutscher, Puech and Rofé, Dion, and Fulco.
- 28. Published by Yigael Yadin et al., *Hazor II. An Account of the Second Season of Excavations*, 1956 (Jerusalem: Magnes Press, 1960), pp. 71–72.
- 29. Jakob Barth. Die Pronominalbildung in den semitischen Sprachen (Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs'sche Buchhandlung, 1913), §§42–47, 37a; and Brockelmann. GvG 1:§107 (especially §§d, f).
- 30. Ali Abou-Assaf, Pierre Bordreuil, and Alan R. Millard, La statue de Tell Fekherye et son inscription bilingue assyro-araméenne (Paris: Editions Recherche sur les civilisations, 1982), pp. 34, 48.
 - 31. Brockelmann, GrG 1:§§107ta, va.
 - 32. Ibid., 1:§107ta.
 - 33. Ibid., 1:§107pβ.
 - 34. See Barth, Pronominalbildung, §28.
- 35. Rosenthal, "Canaanite and Aramaic Inscriptions," in ANET³, p. 658 with n. 1 (tentatively).
- 36. Caquot, "Observations sur la Première Tablette Magique d'Arslan Tash," *JANES* 5 (1973): 47. Cf. Frank M. Cross and Richard J. Saley, "Phoenician Incantations on a Plaque of the Seventh Century B.C. from Arslan Tash in Upper Syria," *BASOR* 197 (1970): 44 n. 7; and Röllig, "Die Amulette von Arslan Taş," *NESE* 2 (1974): 18, 21.
 - 37. See examples listed by Brockelmann, GvG 1:§107vα.

- 38. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, pp. 189, 287.
- 39. Caquot and Lemaire, Syria 54 (1977): 194.
- 40. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 44.
- 41. For example, Baruch A. Levine, "The Deir 'Alla Plaster Inscriptions," JAOS 101 (1981): 196; and Helga and Manfred Weippert, "Die 'Bileam'-Inschrift von Tell Der 'Alla," ZDPV 98 (1982): 84.
 - 42. See Chapter 4, no. 2.
- Barth, Pronominalbildung, §48a; and Brockelmann, GvG 1:§107g
 1.
 - 44. Barth, Pronominalbildung, §49.
- 45. Giovanni Garbini, L'aramaico antico, Atti della Accademia nazionale dei Lincei, Memoria. Classe di scienze morali, storiche e filologiche, Series VIII, vol. 7 (Rome: Accademia nazionale dei Lincei, 1956), pp. 266, 268, 275.
 - 46. Additional citations in Degen, Grammatik, §40.
- 47. Degen, "Die aramaeischen Tontafeln vom Tell Halaf," NESE 1 (1972): 52. Cf. already Friedrich, "Denkmäler mit westsemitischer Buchstabenschrift," in Die Inschriften vom Tell Halaf, ed. J. Friedrich et al. AfO Beiheft, vol. 6 (Berlin: [private], 1940), p. 72.
- 48. Segert, Altaramäische Grammatik (Leipzig: VEB Verlag Enzyklopädie, 1975), §5.1.5.1.4; and Degen, NESE 1 (1972): 52 n. 4.
 - 49. Rosenthal, Die Sprache, p. 51.
- Dupont-Sommer, "Une inscription nouvelle du roi Kilamou et le dieu Rekoub-El," RHR 133 (1947–1948): 23; and Ginsberg, JANES 5 (1973): 147.
- 51. Felice Israel, "The Language of the Ammonites," *OLP* 10 (1979): 146. Cf. p. 65 n. 23.
- 52. Hackett, "The Dialect of the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Alla," Or 53 (1984): 60.
- 53. So Hoftijzer, Fitzmyer, Caquot and Lemaire, Naveh, Levine, McCarter, and Kaufman. See especially the biblical passages cited by Weippert and Weippert, *ZDPV* 98 (1982): 84.
 - 54. Cf. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, pp. 267, 287.
 - 55. See above, p. 11.
- 55a. Evidence of the relative אשר in the Samaria texts is highly uncertain (contra, for example, E. L. Sukenik, "Note on a Fragment of an Israelite Stele found at Samaria." PEQ 1936: 156). The text in question is too broken to yield even speculative grammatical conclusions.
- 56. Garbini, *Il semitico di nord-ovest*, Quaderni della sezione linguistica degli Annali, vol. 1 (Naples: Istituto universitario orientale di Napoli, 1960), p. 105.
- 57. See Mitchell Dahood, "The Linguistic Position of Ugaritic in the Light of Recent Discoveries," Sacra Pagina 1 (1958): 269.
 - 58. For relative *d, see Barth, Pronominalbildung, \$66.
- 59. For relative *t, see Gelb, Old Akkadian Writing and Grammar, Materials for the Assyrian Dictionary, vol. 2. 2nd ed. (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1961), pp. 134-136; and Harris, Development of

- 136. Nöldeke, *Die Inschrift des Königs Mesa von Moab* (Kiel: Schwers'sche Buchhandlung, 1870), p. 33 n. 2; and William L. Moran, "[Review of Cross and Freedman, *EHO*]," *CBQ* 15 (1953): 366.
 - 137. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 41.
 - 138. Barth, Pronominalbildung, §11a.
 - 139. See Friedrich and Röllig, PPG2 §234.
- 140. There are no examples of a singular noun with first person singular suffix on an accusative.
 - 141. Translation of Rosenthal, in ANET³, p. 654.
 - 142. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG2 §234.
 - 143. For additional examples, see Degen, Grammatik, §36.
 - 144. Cyrus H. Gordon, UT §6.6.
 - 145. Wolfram von Soden, GAG §42g with nn. 1, 2.
- 146. The form is vocalized as if it were nominative, yet in the inscription it is genitive. See also pp. 40, 71 n. 146 on the derivation of mrs. "lady."
- 147. There are no masculine singular nouns + third person singular suffix in the Old Byblian texts. For these feminine forms, see no. 8 above, and Friedrich, "Kleinigkeiten zum Phönizischen, Punischen und Numidischen," ZDMG 114 (1964): 226.
- 148. Ginsberg, JANES 5 (1973): 142, where the suffix is treated as an anceps vowel.
 - 149. Rosenthal, "[Review of Harris, Grammar]," Or 7 (1938): 172.
 - 150. Cf. Ginsberg, JANES 5 (1973): 145.
- 151. Hoftijzer, *Le Muséon* 76 (1963): 196 n. 9 (who interpreted the suffix as the first person singular). See also Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §234 (p. 109).
 - 152. Rosenthal, Or 7 (1938): 172.
 - 153. Segert, Grammar, §51.261.
 - 154. See Chapter 2, no. 16.
- 155. Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 19 with n. 15; and Raphael Kutscher, "A New Inscription from Amman," Qadmoniot 5 (1972): 28 (in Hebrew).
- 156. See Cross and Freedman, *EHO*, pp. 35 with n. 2, 37 n. 7, for a discussion of the possible vocalizations. See also Chapter 2, no. 16.
 - 157. So ibid., p. 47.
 - 158. B-L §25r.
- 159. Cf. Freedman, "The Massoretic Text and the Qumran Scrolls: A Study in Orthography," *Textus* 2 (1962): 93 (tentatively); and Cross, *Canaanite Myth and Hebrew Epic* (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1973), p. 102 n. 40.
 - 160. See Chapter 2. no. 16 with n. 272.
 - 161. Naveh, IEJ 13 (1963): 84 with n. 20.
- 162. Idem, "A Hebrew Letter from the Seventh Century B.C.," *IEJ* 10 (1960): 133 n. 6; and Zevit, *Matres Lectionis*, pp. 21-22.
- 163. Cross, in Near Eastern Archaeology, p. 301; and idem, "Epigraphic Notes on Hebrew Documents of the Eighth-Sixth Centuries B.C.: II. The Murabba'at Papyrus and the Letter Found Near Yabneh-Yam," BASOR 165 (1962): 43 with n. 31.

- 164. See Chapter 2, no. 17.
- 165. So, for example, Torczyner, Albright, Cross and Saley, Rosenthal, Gaster, Röllig, and Caquot.
- 166. Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §112. Cf. Charles R. Krahmalkov, "Observations on the Affixing of Possessive Pronouns in Punic," *RSO* 44 (1969): 181–186.
 - 167. Cf. KAI 219:2, ון. זי. קרבן].
- 168. So Kutscher, "Aramaic," in Linguistics in South West Asia and North Africa, Current Trends in Linguistics, vol. 6 (The Hague/Paris: Mouton, 1970), p. 350; and J. J. Koopmans, Aramäische Chrestomathie, 2 vols. (Leiden: Nederlands Instituut voor het Nabije Oosten, 1962), 1:21.
- 169. So Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 22 n. 10; and Gibson, Textbook, 2:5.
- 170. Schaeder, Iranische Beiträge I, pp. 240-241; Fitzmyer, The Aramaic Inscriptions of Sefire, Biblica et Orientalia, vol. 19 (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1967), p. 73; and Kutscher, in Linguistics in South West Asia, p. 350.
 - 171. Cf. Kutscher, A History of Aramaic, p. 25.
 - 172. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, p. 287.
- 173. So, for example, Nöldeke, "Untersuchungen zur semitischen Grammatik," ZDMG 38 (1884): 420 n. 6; and Brockelmann, GvG 1:§105dα.
 - 174. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§105dβ.
- 175. For this vocalization, see Krahmalkov, "Studies in Phoenician and Punic Grammar," JSS 15 (1970): 181-185.
 - 176. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, pp. 29, 48.
 - 177. See above, p. 87.
 - 178. See no. 10c, for the vocalization [hem] < *hum(u).
- 179. See Krahmalkov, RSO 44 (1969): 181–186, for the connecting vowel [6] in Phoenician and Punic.
- 180. This form is a dual, but the outcome is identical to that of the masculine plural.
- 181. So read by Cross, in Near Eastern Archaeology, pp. 301, 305 n. 11.
 - 182. Zevit, Matres Lectionis, p. 28.
 - 183. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§105eα.
- 184. The presence of the diphthong in the Hebrew form results from the southern provenience of all attested forms; the northern form would have been *[êkā].
 - 185. See Brockelmann, GvG 1:\$105e, for evidence.
 - 186. Cf. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 15.
- 187. So Friedrich, in *Tell Halaf*, p. 77; and Degen, *NESE* 1 (1972): 55 (tentatively).
- 188. Kienast, Münchener Studien zur Sprachwissenschaft 10 (1957): 73-76.
 - 189. Degen, Grammatik, §36 (end).
 - 190. See p. 75 n. 253 for references.
 - 191. See Chapter 2, no. 16.

- 192. Dion, La langue, p. 407 n. 45.
- 193. Idem, RB 82 (1975): 32 with n. 55.
- 194. With Horn, Puech and Rofé, and Fulco.
- 195. So, for example, Hackett, Or 53 (1984): 63.
- 196. The suffix is masculine, as most interpreters have agreed (Cooke, NSI, p. 13; Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 41; and Segert, ArOr 29 [1961]: 259).
- 197. Naveh. *IEJ* 29 (1979): 136; and Greenfield, *JSS* 25 (1980): 250. Cf. Cross and Freedman, *EHO*, p. 38.
- 198. Cross and Freedman, *EHO*, pp. 46–47 with n. 11. For other opinions, see Ginsberg, "[Review of Diringer, *Le inscrizioni*]," *ArOr* 8 (1936): 146; and Gibson, *Textbook*, 1:3.
 - 199. See Chapter 2, no. 7.
 - 200. So, for example, Cross and Freedman, EHO, pp. 47, 68-69.
- 201. Lemaire, "Les inscriptions de Khirbet el-Qôm et l'Ashérah de YHWH," RB 84 (1977): 599, 601.
- 202. William G. Dever, "Iron Age Epigraphic Material from the Area of Khirbet el-Kôm," *HUCA* 40-41 (1969-1970): 159; and idem, "Inscriptions from Khirbet el-Kom," *Qadmoniot* 4 (1971): 91 (in Hebrew). See also Zevit, *Matres Lectionis*, pp. 17-18 n. 6.
 - 203. See above, no. 6b.
 - 204. Cf. Cross, in Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 172-173.
 - 205. See above, no. 9d.
 - 206. Chapter 2, no. 8.
 - 207. For the phonetic variants, see Chapter 2, nos. 16, 17.
- 208. So, for example, Hayim Tawil, "A Note on the Aḥiram Inscription," JANES 3/1 (1970–1971): 34 (earlier literature on p. 34 n. 13). Others emended to מוכ) "his abode" (Albright, JAOS 67 [1947]: 155 n. 19; Rosenthal, in ANET³. p. 661; Naveh, "[Review of Friedrich and Röllig, PPG²]," JAOS 93 [1973]: 589).
 - 209. See above, no. 9b.
 - 210. The stem is G, not D (see Rosenthal, Or 7 [1938]: 170–171).
- 211. See Krahmalkov, "The Object Pronouns of the Third Person of Phoenician and Punic," RSF 2 (1974): 39-43, esp. p. 42.
 - 212. Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 17.
 - 213. Kutscher, Qadmoniot 5 (1972): 27.
- 214. For other readings, see Emile Puech and Alexander Rofé, "L'inscription de la citadelle d'Amman," RB 80 (1973): 536; Dion, RB 82 (1975): 29–30; and William J. Fulco, "The 'Amman Citadel Inscription: A New Collation," BASOR 230 (1978): 41.
- See Chapter 4, no. 1b. Cf. Caquot and Lemaire, Syria 54 (1977):
 204, 205.
 - 216. See above, no. 9b and n. 156.
 - 217. So Cross, BASOR 165 (1962): 44 with n. 40; and KAI 2: 201.
 - 218. Cf. Gibson, Textbook, 1:30.
- 219. See Robert Hetzron, "Third person singular pronoun suffixes in Proto-Semitic," *Orientalia Suecana* 18 (1969): 101–127, esp. pp. 119–120.

248. So, for example, Cooke, NSI, p. 170 (probable interpretation); and KAI 2:222.

249. So, for example, Charles-F. Jean and J. Hoftijzer, *Dictionnaire des inscriptions sémitiques de l'ouest* (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1965), p. 66. Cf. Paul Joüon, *Grammaire de l'hébreu biblique* (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1923), §1671.

250. So, for example, William L. Reed and Fred V. Winnett, "A Fragment of an Early Moabite Inscription from Kerak," *BASOR* 172 (1963): 9; and Gibson, *Textbook*, 1:84.

251. Brockelmann, GvG 2:§419.

252. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 148. See also McCarter, BASOR 239 (1980): 52, 59 n. 4.

253. See B-L \$65s; and Jouon, Grammaire, \$93g, for discussions.

254. Ronald J. Williams, *Hebrew Syntax: An Outline*, 2nd ed. (Toronto/Buffalo: University of Toronto Press, 1976), §61; Gordon, *UT* §11.2; and Chapter 2, no. 18b.

255. Contrast, for example, Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, pp. 186–187, with Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 54.

256. Gordon, UT §11.1.

257. Albright, "An Aramaean Magical Text in Hebrew from the Seventh Century B.C.," BASOR 76 (1939): 9-10 with n. 36.

258. KAI 2:46; and Segert, Grammar, §57.4 (tentatively).

259. Cross and Saley, *BASOR* 197 (1970): 46 with nn. 29–30; and Röllig. *NESE* 2 (1974): 19, 25,

260. See Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §318.3a, for the use of אל.

261. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, p. 49.

262. The loss of precative *lamedh* may be attributable to the coexistence of a "short" imperfect. In a construction like אדר, the meaning is clearly "let him be"; a prefixed *lamedh* would be redundant, as it is in אדר let the western dialects, then, the competition between "short" imperfect and precative *lamedh* + "short" imperfect led to the loss of precative *lamedh*; in the East, the precative *lamedh* was preserved, with and without precative force.

See Eduard König, "Das I-Jaqtul im Semitischen," ZDMG 51 (1897): 330–337.

264. Kaufman, *The Akkadian Influences on Aramaic*. Assyriological Studies, vol. 19 (Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press, 1974), pp. 124–126.

265. Brockelmann, GvG 1:\$257Hae.

266. Cf. Abou-Assaf et al., La statue, pp. 37, 46.

267. The autograph of this text reads ה"[-], not הירתש"ר, not ה (KAI and Fitzmyer).

268. Rosenthal, in ANET3, p. 660 n. 10.

269. For a different opinion, see Degen. Grammatik, §§10, 11, 25.

270. J. Halévy, "Nouvel Examen des inscriptions de Zindjirli," RS 7 (1899): 345; Gibson, Textbook, 2:63; and Dion, La langue, p. 206.

271. Dion, La langue, pp. 108-109.

272. Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 19 n. 16 (preferred alternative); Garbini, Le lingue semitiche. Studi di storia linguistica (Naples: Istituto orientale di Napoli, 1972), p. 105; and Fulco, BASOR 230 (1978): 42 (tentatively).

273. Dion, RB 82 (1975): 31.

274. So Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, p. 292; Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 100 (one possibility). Cf. Levine, *JAOS* 101 (1981): 201.

275. Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, pp. 292, 293.

276. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 144, 145. See also Naveh, *IEJ* 29 (1979): 136.

277. So Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, pp. 228, 293; and Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 100, 145.

278. See below, no. 22b.

279. Examples cited in B-L §38f.

280. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§257Haβ.

281. Gotthelf Bergsträsser, Einführung in die semitischen Sprachen (1928; reprint ed., Darmstadt: Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 1977), p. 66.

282. Translation of Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 19 n. 16; and idem, "Ammonite Ostraca from Heshbon: Heshbon Ostraca IV-VIII," AUSS 13 (1975): 12 n. 34, although the verb is analyzed as Gt.

283. Krahmalkov, "An Ammonite Lyric Poem," BASOR 223 (1976): 57. Cf. William H. Shea, "The Siran Inscription: Amminadab's Drinking Song," PEQ 1978: 109.

284. So, for example, Dion, and Zayadine and Thompson.

285. Albright, "Some Comments on the 'Ammân Citadel Inscription," BASOR 198 (1970): 39.

286. For the readings, see Fulco, BASOR 230 (1978): 39-41.

287. For this reading, see H. Van Dyke Parunak, "The Orthography of the Arad Ostraca," BASOR 230 (1978): 25, 27–28.

288. For comparative evidence, see Brockelmann, GvG 1:§257Hf.

289. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §146.

290. Garbini, "I dialetti del fenicio," AION 27 (1977): 286 n. 16; and P. Swiggers, "[Review of Segert, Grammar]," Lingua 50 (1980): 384–385.

291. Garbini, "Il causativo hqtl nel dialetto fenicio di Biblo," AION 24 (1974): 411-412.

292. Cross, "A Recently Published Phoenician Inscription of the Persian Period from Byblos," *IEJ* 29 (1979): 41.

293. So, for example, Degen, *Grammatik*, pp. 19 n. 76, 25, 68 n. 54, 70 n. 58. Cf. Fitzmyer, *Sefire*, pp. 106, 157.

294. Cf. Naveh, IEJ 29 (1979): 135.

295. For the development of the prefix, see Harris, Grammar, p. 43; and idem, Development, p. 74.

296. See Lipiński, RSF 2 (1974): 54; and Röllig, NESE 2 (1974): 36.

297. See Brockelmann, GvG 1:§262e.

- 298. Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 31.
- 299. Cf. ibid., p. 27.
- 300. See above. pp. 107-108.
- 301. Dion, La langue, pp. 55-59.
- 302. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§262e.
- 303. See Chapter 2, no. 19.
- 304. For the vocalization, see Chapter 2, no. 7.
- 305. Klaus Beyer, "[Review of Degen, *Grammatik*]," *ZDMG* 120 (1970): 200.
 - 306. Dion. La langue, pp. 104-105.
 - 307. See Chapter 2, no. 7.
 - 308. See Chapter 2, no. 7.
 - 309. Harris, Development, pp. 45-46.
 - 310. See p. 77 n. 283.
 - 311. Cf. Blau, HUCA 51 (1980): 17, 27.
- 312. Degen, "Die Präfixkonjugationen des Altaramäischen." in XVII. Deutscher Orientalistentag . . . Würzburg. Vorträge, ed. Wolfgang Voigt, ZDMG Supplementa, vol. 1, pt. 2 (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1969), pp. 701-706; and idem, Grammatik, §§49-50.
- 313. For the ending [awn], see idem, *Grammatik*, p. 77 n. 78; and no. 23e below.
 - 314. See below, no. 18b.
 - 315. The ending is [aw] since the verb is final weak. See no. 23e below.
- 316. Cf. Nöldeke, "Bemerkungen zu den aramäischen Inschriften von Sendschirli," ZDMG 47 (1893): 102; Halévy, "Les Deux Inscriptions hétéennes de Zindjîrlî," RS 1 (1893): 254; and Dion, La langue, pp. 184–186.
- 317. This form was once read יחלון, a (h)ithpael conjugation of *lwy (for example, Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 18). More recently, however, scholars have agreed on the reading איזלין, from *lwn (so KAI 2:33, etc.).
 - 318. For the translation, see Segert, Grammar, §54.364.
- 319. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §§135, 261, 264. Contra Friedrich, "Der Schwund kurzer Endvokale im Nordwestsemitischen," ZS 1 (1922): 6 n. 2; and Harris, Grammar, pp. 40–41. Cf. also Segert, Grammar, §§64.51, 64.531.
 - 320. Cf. Garbini, L'aramaico antico, pp. 268, 275.
- 321. In the Nerab inscriptions, all third person masc. plural imperfect verbs end in 1-. Yet since these verbs were volitive, it is not known whether the corresponding indicative verbs ended in *-ūn or the identical *-ū. See Rosenthal, Die Sprache, p. 59.
 - 322. So read by Fulco, BASOR 230 (1978): 41.
 - 323. See n. 315.
 - 324. Hackett, Or 53 (1984): 62.
 - 325. Cf. Kaufman, BiOr 34 (1977): 94.
 - 326. Dion, La langue, pp. 192, 463 n. 3.
 - 327. For comparative evidence, see Brockelmann, GvG 1:§260Cg.
 - 328. Blau, Hebrew Annual Review 2 (1978): 37.
 - 329. For comparative evidence, see Brockelmann, GvG 1:\$263Bb.

- 354. Cf. Hoftijzer, Caquot and Lemaire, McCarter, and Levine, who interpreted pw as "there."
 - 355. Jouon, Grammaire, §80c.
 - 356. See above, nn. 317-318.
- 357. On the *yodh*, see Brockelmann, *GvG* 1:§270Gg; and Rosenthal, *A Grammar of Biblical Aramaic*, Porta Linguarum Orientalium, New Series, vol. 5 (Wiesbaden: Otto Harrassowitz, 1974), §139.
- 358. So Degen, *Grammatik*, p. 76 n. 76; and Segert, *Grammatik*, \$5,7,6,7,2.
 - 359. See Fitzmyer, Sefire, pp. 86-87.
 - 360. For survivals, see Brockelmann, GvG 1:\$270Gg, Anm.
 - 361. See above, n. 277.
 - 362. Blau, Hebrew Annual Review 2 (1978): 37.
 - 363. Gordon, UT §9.36.
- 364. Cf. Ginsberg, in *Akten* . . . 1957, p. 256; idem, in *Patriarchs*, pp. 103–104; and Blau, *Hebrew Annual Review* 2 (1978): 37.
- 365. Harris, *Grammar*, p. 45; and Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §176a. For the ending -t in Punic, see Nöldeke, *ZDMG* 38 (1884): 417 with n. 4.
 - 366. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG2 §86a.
 - 367. Ibid., p. 84 n. 1.
 - 368. B-L \$57r.
 - 369. Blau, Hebrew Annual Review 2 (1978): 36 n. 28.
 - 370. See Chapter 2, nos. 15 and 6.
 - 371. See Chapter 2, no. 19.
 - 372. Segert, Grammatik, §§5.7.8.2.2-3.
 - 373. Dion, La langue, p. 59.
 - 374. See n. 31.
 - 375. See p. 74 n. 238.
 - 376. See Chapter 2, no. 6.
 - 377. Friedrich and Röllig. PPG² §176d.
- 378. So, for example, Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 78, 146; and Weippert and Weippert, ZDPV 98 (1982): 97.
 - 379. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 78.
 - 380. Cf. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§271Hbβ.
- 381. Hoftijzer, in *Aramaic Texts*, p. 292. See further the citations in Weippert and Weippert, *ZDPV* 98 (1982): 97.
- 382. In either case, however, it is difficult to reconcile the form of with that of the (I.5), unless the latter is an infinitive (see below, n. 410). See McCarter, BASOR 239 (1980): 55-56.
- 383. Lemaire, "Les ostraca paléo-hébreux des fouilles de l'Ophel," Levant 10 (1978): 159.
 - 384. See no. 18b.
 - 385. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §§135, 261, 264.
- 386. See, for example, Degen, in XVII . . . Orientalistentag, pp. 701–706. Cf. Segert, Grammatik, \$5.6.5.2.3, for possible vocalizations.
- 387. The jussive and consecutive imperfect are derived from the self-same *yaqtul.

- 388. Greenfield, JSS 25 (1980): 251 (tentatively).
- 389. So Fitzmyer, McCarter, and others.
- 390. For the reading, see Hackett. Or 53 (1984): 59 n. 15.
- 391. Cf. Segert, Grammar, §54.464.3 (on Phoenician).
- 392. As read by Cross, in Near Eastern Archaeology, p. 301.
- 393. B-L §§57d-h.
- 394. See Karl Jaberg, Aspects géographiques du langage, Société de publications romanes et françaises, vol. 18 (Paris: Librairie E. Droz, 1936), p. 94.
 - 395. Cf. Dion, JNES 37 (1978): 117.
 - 396. Cf. nos. 18a and 18b.
 - 397. The final nun did not appear in the early period. See no. 18b.
 - 398. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§271He.
- 399. Caquot, "Une inscription araméenne d'époque assyrienne," in *Hommages à André Dupont-Sommer* (Paris: Adrien-Maisonneuve, 1971), pp. 9–16.
 - 400. See Degen, Grammatik, p. 77 n. 78.
 - 401. For the final nun, see no. 18b.
 - 402. Cf. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 137, 136.
 - 403. See no. 23c.
- 404. Bergsträsser, Hebräische Grammatik, 2 vols. (Leipzig: F. C. W. Vogel, 1918–1929), 2:§30l. Cf. B-L §57c.
 - 405. The presence or absence of -n is not significant for this purpose.
 - 406. For example, KAI 2:246; and Segert, Grammatik, §5.7.8.5.1.
- 407. So, for example, Fitzmyer. Sefire, p. 40; and Degen, Grammatik, p. 78 with n. 82. Because of this formal difficulty, Fitzmyer and Degen preferred to interpret מוחד as a pael inf. Yet this interpretation poses two problems. First, a pael conjugation of חוד does not occur in the Aramaic dialects; the oft-cited example of the pael of this root, חוד in Nerab 2:5, is instead a contraction of the interrogative [mā] + participle [hāzi(h)], i.e. "what do (I) see?" (Cooke, NSI, p. 190; and Rosenthal, in ANET³, p. 661). Second, if the infinitive were pael, the expected syntax of the infinitive + nominal accusative would be a construct chain, as for example אלחוית ביר (Sf. II B 7) and (haphel) י"and to kill my son" (Sf. III 11); instead of the expected "thin proposed pael infinitive appears as different connot be a pael infinitive.
 - 408. Nöldeke, Mandäische Grammatik, §191 (end).
 - 409. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§198c; and Rosenthal, Grammar, §149.
- 410. Rosenthal, "Notes on the Third Aramaic Inscription from Seffre-Sujin," BASOR 158 (1960): 29 n. 6.
 - 411. Degen, Grammatik, p. 78 with n. 81.
- 412. Contra Dion, La langue, p. 57, with literature cited on p. 392 nn. 19, 22.
- 413. While it is possible that e in bunem represents the vowel [i], the masculine plural participles dobrim "saying" (Poen. 935) and iusim "going out" (Poen. 939) show i for [i]. In view of these examples, the e in bunem indicates a significant difference from the regular masculine plural morpheme. e is a contraction from *ay.

- 440. Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² §163. Cf. Caquot, *JANES* 5 (1973): 49 n. 14.
- 441, Cross and Saley, *BASOR* 197 (1970): 46 n. 23a. Cf. Röllig, *NESE* 2 (1974): 24; and Chapter 4, no. 7a.
 - 442. See Harris, Development, pp. 33, 71.
- 443. Cf. the imperfect forms יהלך (Ps. 58:9, etc.), אהלך (Job 16:22), etc. See GKC §69x.
 - 444. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§258A.
 - 445. Cf. Blau, Hebrew Annual Review 2 (1978): 37.
 - 446. Cf. idem, Maarav 2 (1980): 145-146.
 - 447. See Harris, Development, pp. 8-9.
- 448. See Chapter 5 for the position of Sfire-Aramaic within the Aramaic dialects.
- 449. Cf. Segert, "Noch zu den assimilierenden Verba im Hebräischen," ArOr 24 (1956): 133-134.
- 450. Anson F. Rainey, "Three Additional Hebrew Ostraca from Tel Arad," Tel Aviv 4 (1977): 101.

SYNTAX

1a. The pronoun: The proleptic suffix.1

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: The proleptic suffix appeared regularly with the infinitive construct followed by a noun; the suffix was therefore subjective and redundant. The suffix is found in לשבתנם דננים "so that they may dwell, (i.e.) the Danunians" (Karatepe A I 17/18) and י"so that the may give, (i.e.) Baal-Krntrys" (Karatepe A III 4). Cf. similarly later standard Phoenician, as for example "of his rule, (i.e. of) king Eshmunazor" (Eshmunazor 1).

ARAMAIC: There was no proleptic suffix in Old Aramaic. In later eastern Aramaic dialects, the proleptic suffix is a characteristic feature. A genitive particle, however, frequently separates the two members of the phrase, as in biblical Aramaic שרשודה די אילנא "the roots of the tree" (Dan. 4:23).

SAMALIAN: There does not appear to have been a proleptic suffix in Samalian.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: A proleptic suffix does not seem to appear in the Deir Alla dialect. The decipherable material, however, is meager.

MOABITE: There was no proleptic suffix in Moabite, according to the present evidence.6

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Evidence uncertain. Skehan7 has suggested that the proleptic suffix appeared in the Gezer Calendar, as for example in ירחו אסף "the two months of it, (i.e. of) gathering" (1. 1), ירחו אסף "the two months of it. (i.e. of) sowing" (II. 1/2), etc. Similarly, Cross⁸ identified the proleptic suffix in Arad 17:2, ביתה,אלישב "his house, (i.e. of) Elyasab." Finally, a proleptic suffix may have appeared in Beit Lei A 2, לו לאלהי ירשלם "his, (of) the God of Jerusalem. **9

Yet each example is ambiguous. The passages cited in the Gezer Calendar are not clearly understood to date and therefore are not usable evidence. The passage in Arad 17 does not contain a proleptic suffix, but rather the directive he followed by an unbound name. 10 And the passage in Beit Lei A 2 may be read differently, as Cross¹¹ has done; this new reading removes the proleptic suffix altogether. Thus, there is no certain evidence for the proleptic suffix in epigraphic Hebrew.

The proleptic suffix is used throughout the West Semitic languages, though in different constructions, to anticipate a following noun. 12 In first-millennium NWS, only standard Phoenician showed a regular use of the proleptic suffix; it appeared only on infinitive constructs whose following noun was subjective. The other dialects apparently did not employ the proleptic suffix. On the one hand, then, this syntactic feature was unique to standard Phoenician among the first-millennium NWS dialects. On the other hand, standard Phoenician usage reflects common West Semitic syntax.

1b. The form of the direct object pronoun of the finite verb (objective suffix vs. nota accusativi + suffix).

PHOENICIAN: The direct object pronoun always took the form of objective suffixes, as in פעלן "he made me" (Karatepe A I 3.12). "I subdued them" (Karatepe A I 20), שתי "I made him" (Kilamu 11.11), etc.

ARAMAIC: The direct object pronoun generally took the form of objective suffixes, as in בכוני "they bewailed me" (Nerab 2:5/6),

"I will rescue you" (Zkr A 14), תשריה "may you release him" (Sf. III 18), היטבתה "I made it better" (Br-Rkb 1:12), etc. The author could give the direct object pronoun added emphasis by putting the object in the form of the nota accusativi אית + possessive suffix, as in הן אילת ויקתלן "if it is me they kill" (Sf. III 11) and תכה אי(ת)ה מכה אילת) "you slav him" (Sf. III 13).14

SAMALIAN: The direct object pronoun was usually the objective suffix, as in הרשבני "he made me sit" (P 19), בכיה "they bewailed him" (P 17), היטבה "you will kill him" (H 33), and היטבה "he made it better" (P 9). This pronoun also took the form of the nota accusativi מין "and he will erect" ייקם ותה "and he will erect it" (H 28). The semantic difference between these two notations of the direct object pronoun is unknown.

AMMONITE: No evidence. The example of objective suffixes recognized by Cross, 16 Kutscher, 17 and Puech and Rofé 18 are uncertain since the readings of these texts are difficult. 19

DEIR ALLA: The direct object pronoun was an objective suffix in the extant texts, as in אחוכם "I shall tell you" (1.5) and תשנאו "you hate him" 20 (II 10).

MOABITE: The direct object pronoun was the objective suffix in the extant texts, as in יחלפה 'and he succeeded him' (Mesha 6). "and he expelled him" (Mesha 19), השעני "he saved me" השעני (Mesha 4), המחזה "and I captured it" (Mesha 11), etc.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The direct object pronoun took two forms in epigraphic Hebrew. It was either an objective suffix, as for example ברבתר "I bless you" (Arad 16:2/3, 21:2, 40:3), והבקירם "and he will hand them over" (Arad 24:14/15), צותני "vou commanded me" (Arad 18:7/8), ידעתה "vou know it"²¹ (Lach. 2:6, 3:8; Arad 40:9), etc. Alternatively, the direct object pronoun appeared as the nota accusativi nx + pronominal suffix, as for example in ברכת.אתכם "I bless you" (Ajrud²²), ימלחתם, אחם 'and you will send them' (Arad 24:13 [parallel to קראתי, אתה "I read it" (Lach. 3:12, 12:4 [partially restored)). There appears to have been no difference, either syntactically²³ or semantically, between these two forms of the direct object pronoun.

As in all the Semitic languages, 24 the direct object pronoun took the form of either a suffixed objective pronoun or the *nota accusativi* + pronominal suffix. On the one hand, Phoenician, Moabite, and probably the Deir Alla dialect appear to have used the objective suffix alone; it is uncertain, however, whether the *nota accusativi* + suffix was used in these dialects but was not preserved in the extant texts. On the other hand, Old Aramaic. Samalian, and Hebrew texts show both the objective suffix and *nota accusativi* + suffix to signify this direct object.

Although the objective suffix and nota accusativi + suffix functioned as the direct object pronoun in Old Aramaic, Samalian, and Hebrew, these dialects do not necessarily exhibit identical usage. In Old Aramaic, as in Akkadian, Ugaritic, Ethiopic, and Arabic, the nota accusativi + suffix lent added emphasis to the direct object pronoun. In Hebrew, however, the emphatic nature of the nota accusativi + suffix had weakened considerably; the objective suffix and nota accusativi + suffix appear to have been interchangeable. Finally, the evidence for the distribution of the two forms in Samalian is too meager to admit any conclusions. The use of the nota accusativi + suffix, then, varied considerably within these dialects.

2. The demonstrative pronoun: The agreement or nonagreement between a noun and appositional demonstrative with respect to determination.²⁵

BYBLIAN: Undetermined noun + demonstrative pronoun, as in ארן.זן "this coffin" (Ahirom 2). ²⁶ The other example of a noun + appositional demonstrative in Old Byblian—ל. "all the ruins of these houses" (Yehimilk 2/3)—may have been subject to different syntactic rules. ²⁷

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: Determined noun + simple demonstrative pronoun, as in ד הספר "this inscription" (Kilamu 15), ד הקרת "this city" (Karatepe A II 9.17, etc.), השער "this gate" (Karatepe A III 15.18), etc. In יעם "and this people" (Karatepe A III 7/8, C IV 7), however, the definite article syncopated between short vowels; ti does not contradict the general Phoenician rule that the demonstrative pronoun was preceded by a determined noun.

ARAMAIC: Determined noun + demonstrative pronoun, as in "this stele" (Zkr B 14.18.19; Sf. I C 17), ביתא.זנה "this house" (Br-Rkb 1:20), דמותא.זאת "this image" (Fekh. 15), etc.

SAMALIAN: "Undetermined" noun + demonstrative pronoun, as in נצב.זן "this stele" (H 1; P 1.20), אמרת.אל "these words" (H 29), etc.²⁹ The absence of a defined noun in this construction is not

significant since Samalian had no definite article. 30 This Samalian construction, therefore, differed from parallel Old Byblian constructions since Old Byblian had a definite article but did not employ it in this construction.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: Evidence uncertain. If the reading of 12, proposed by Caquot and Lemaire³¹ and McCarter³² is correct, the syntax of "according to these words" would be determined noun + simple demonstrative pronoun. Yet the reading and interpretation of this passage are unclear. 33

MOABITE: Determined noun + simple demonstrative pronoun, as in הבמת.זאת "this highplace" (Mesha 3).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Determined noun + definite article + demonstrative pronoun, as in החדר. הדה "this season" (Lach. 6:2) and "this" "this room" (el-Qom 1:3). The definite article modifying the noun preceding the demonstrative was transferred to the demonstrative, on analogy with the model of the determined noun + determined adjective. 34 Thus, since "the good house" was הב(י)ת הטב, so too "this house" became ה-ב(י)ת ה-דה. Cf. קצרי זה "this harvest of mine" (Yavneh-Yam 1:9), in which the transference could not have taken place.

In the early period, however, Hebrew may have resembled Old Byblian if the reading ה{.}בת ז{. "this house/bath" (Hazor 335) is correct. The analogical form and, then, would have developed between the mid-ninth and mid-eighth centuries B.C.E.

Three forms of the noun + demonstrative appeared in the firstmillennium NWS dialects. An undetermined noun may have been followed by a simple demonstrative pronoun, as in Old Byblian, early Hebrew (?), and Samalian; in Samalian, the absence of determination is meaningless since the dialect had no definite article. In standard Phoenician, Aramaic, Moabite, and possibly the Deir Alla dialect, a definite article appeared before the modified noun; since the noun was determined by construction, the definite article was, strictly speaking, redundant.36 The appearance of the article in comparable Arabic constructions suggests a common West Semitic development.37 Finally, in Hebrew, a determined noun was followed by a demonstrative with prefixed definite article; this construction was an inner-Hebrew analogical formation.

3a. The noun: The periphrastic genitive (nonconstruct state).³⁸

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: There were two forms of the periphrastic genitive in standard Phoenician. In one, the relative particle was followed by the dative ל + PN, as in בעל. צמד. אש. לגבר "Baal-Ṣamad who (belongs) to Gabbar" (Kilamu 15) and בעל חמן. אש. לבמה "Baal-Ḥamman who (belongs) to Bmh" (Kilamu 16). The other periphrastic genitive had a special genitive particle w, as in the eighth-century seal חתם שצרו "the seal of Ṣry." This use of a special genitive particle foreshadows the later Punic distinction between the relative w and the genitive w. 41

ARAMAIC: The relative יז functioned as a genitive particle at Tell Fekheriyeh (e.g., ימרא. די.הריסעי "the image of Hdys'y" [I. 1] and "the scourge of Nergal" [I. 23]), Tell Halaf (e.g., יי אלמלך "grain of 'lmlk' [Ost. 3 Obv. 1/2]), Palestine יי אלמלך בבל "of the king of Babylon" [Adon 4] 42), and possibly at Deir Alla (יי יי יי מרך ביי 'of $\tilde{S}r^{\rm cr}$ ' [Clay Text 1] 43). All other examples of a genitive in are dubious. "All other examples of a genitive whas been conclusively disproven by Kaufman. "5

SAMALIAN: There are no examples of a periphrastic genitive in Samalian. 46

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. For genitive יו in Clay Text 1, see above under Aramaic.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: Like BH, ⁴⁷ a periphrastic genitive occurred in the relative particle + ל + proper name, for example אשר רל ארן. גדי[הו] אשר הישור (Grad 71:2/3). If Naveh's reading to A. G.'' (Arad 71:2/3). If Naveh's reading the mountains of Beit Lei A 1/2 is correct—ירשלים "the mountains of Judah are his, the God of Jerusalem's"—the periphrastic genitive may have appeared without the relative particle. Admittedly, the reading and syntax of the inscription, as interpreted by Naveh, are difficult. ⁴⁹

According to the available evidence, the periphrastic genitive assumed three forms in the first-millennium NWS dialects. The relative particle functioned as a genitive particle in a few Old Aramaic

AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: The evidence is ambiguous. The phrase מוֹי 'in (the) cities which'' (Mesha 29)⁵⁸ may conceal a definite article since, due to Moabite phonetic rules, the definite article *he* syncopated after the preposition *beth*.⁵⁹ Additional evidence is needed to resolve the question of the status of the noun.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The nominal antecedent of the relative clause was either undefined (as for example in דבר.אשר "something which" [Lach. 2:6]) or defined (for example את הרעה. "the man who" [Silwan B 2] and את הרעה.אש[ר] את הרעה.אש[ר] Both epigraphic and biblical Hebrew texts indicate that the presence or absence of the definite article was conditioned by the sense the author wished to convey, not by the construction alone.

In NWS, the nominal antecedent of a relative clause was either determined or undetermined. In Old Aramaic it was determined in every clause but two (Sf. I B 31 = I C 20; Fekh. 23); determination was demanded by the relative construction itself. In Byblian, and twice in Old Aramaic, the nominal antecedent was undetermined. It is unclear, however, whether the noun was absolute or bound to the relative particle. Finally, in Hebrew and (possibly) standard Phoenician, the presence or absence of a determined nominal antecedent was demanded not by mere construction, but by sense. The dialectal status of Moabite, in this respect, is unknown.

4a. Negations: The negation of the finite verb (nonprohibition).

BYBLIAN: No evidence from the early period. In a later Byblian text, however, the negative אבל $< *^{5}i + *bal^{63}$ appeared, followed by an imperfect (Yehawmilk 13).

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: 23 negated perfects⁶⁴ (Kilamu 2.3, etc.; Karatepe A I 19, II 16, etc.) and imperfects (Arsl.T. 1:6.8), as well as nouns (Karatepe A I 15).

ARAMAIC: -5 (Sf. 1 A 28.28, B 21, etc.; Nerab 2:6, etc.).

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: -5 (1 3 [?]; 11 7.7.9.9).

MOABITE: No evidence. EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: x5 (Lach. 2:6, 3:8, etc.; Yavneh-Yam 1:12.14; etc.).

The scanty evidence of the negative of finite verbs in the first-millennium NWS dialects reflects a twofold dialectal division. The majority of dialects—Aramaic, Deir Alla, and Hebrew—used (κ) 65 to negate finite verbs. Phoenician dialects, however, adopted different negatives— τ in standard Phoenician and τ in Byblian. While most Semitic languages use t in this function, other negations appear as well. Each NWS negation, in fact, finds a counterpart in other languages in this usage.

4b. The negation of the participle.

BYBLIAN: No evidence.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: In an early fifth-century text, אי negates the participle (Eshmunazor 5).⁶⁷ Whether אי negated participles in the early period, however, cannot be determined with any certainty.

ARAMAIC: -5, as in Sf. II C 8.

SAMALIAN: No evidence.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

אדן און אין. in the construction אין + subjective suffix + participle, as in אין ''we are not able to send'' (Arad 40:13/14) and אינן בוי. "I cannot send'' (Lach. 4:7/8). The construction is similarly found in BH.68 No example of a simple negated participle is attested in the epigraphic corpus.

According to the scanty evidence, the NWS dialects did not negate participles uniformly. In Aramaic, the particle * $l\bar{a}$ was used. In standard Phoenician, it was w (cf. Eth. [\bar{i}] "not" and Akk. ay/\hat{e} "may . . . not"). In Hebrew, the term for nonexistence, px, served this function. This distribution suggests an independent syntactic usage in each dialect. 69

4c. The position of the term for nonexistence in the clause.

PHOENICIAN: No evidence.

ARAMAIC: Postpositive, as in רבי.טב.לישה "and a good house did not exist" (Br-Rkb 1:15/16). The term for nonexistence, with resumptive suffix, followed the subject of the sentence.

SAMALIAN: No evidence. AMMONITE: No evidence. DEIR ALLA: No evidence.

MOABITE: Postpositive, as in הבר.אן.בקרב. "and a cistern did not exist in the city" (Mesha 24). Like the example from Br-Rkb 1:15/16, the term for nonexistence followed the subject.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The term for nonexistence was always first in the clause, as for example אין פה בסף. "there is no silver or gold here" (Silwan B I) אין שם.אדם "there is no one there" (Lach. 4:5/6), and אין שים.אדם "we are not able to send" (Arad 40:13/14). It is possible, however, that the term for nonexistence appeared in alternative positions in epigraphic Hebrew texts which have not yet been discovered. In the Masoretic text, the term usually appears in initial position, although different positions are also possible, and prevalent. The unanimity in the epigraphic Hebrew corpus, then, may be due to the small sample afforded by the texts.

According to the available evidence, the position of the term for nonexistence in NWS was either initial or postpositive. In Old Aramaic and Moabite, the term for nonexistence was postpositive; it immediately followed the clausal subject. In Hebrew, the term was always in initial position. Perhaps these different word orders reflect different grammatical conceptions of the term for nonexistence. It was treated as a copula, nominal element, or negative particle.

5. The preposition: The repetition or nonrepetition of coordinated prepositions.

BYBLIAN: The only example of coordinated nouns in the extant Old Byblian texts is the special case of proper noun + appositional

noun. In these cases, the preposition was not repeated before each noun, as for example לאחרם. אבה "for Ahirom, his father" (Ahirom 1) and בבל. ארתו "for Mistress-of-Byblos, his lady" (Shiptibaal 3/4; Elibaal 2 [partially restored]). It is unclear, however, whether these examples are representative of Byblian syntax. At least in biblical Hebrew, when a title precedes a proper name, the preposition is repeated, although it is not repeated when the title follows the proper name. Since, in the Byblian examples, the title followed the proper name, a coordination of prepositions would not be expected.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: The repetition of prepositions appears to have been the rule, as for example in בצרקי ובחכמתי ובנעם לבי "because of my righteousness and because of my wisdom and because of my peace of mind" (Karatepe A I 12/13), ארן "for the Danunians and for the entire Adana plain" (Karatepe A II 8/9), and בשנאת וברע "because of hatred or because of evil" (Karatepe A III 17). See also Karatepe A II 11/12.12–14, III 10/11 = C IV 11/12, A III 19-IV 1. Cf. Kilamu 11/12.

Although each coordinated noun had a prefixed preposition in this dialect, there were two irregularities. First, the repetition of the preposition may have been optional. For example, in Karatepe A I 14, במקמם באש "in the places where." the preposition was repeated, whereas in Karatepe A II 3, במקמם אש "in the places which," it was not. Cf. similarly Karatepe C IV 12, במקמם בעבר בעל ובעבר אלם "because of Baal and because of the gods" (cf. Karatepe A II 11/12), in contrast to Karatepe A I 8, II 6, III 11, בעבר בעל ואלם "because of Baal and the gods." Clearly, the repetition of prepositions may have been determined by the stylistic preferences of the author.

The second irregularity appears also in other Canaanite dialects; the preposition was not repeated if a proper name preceded a title, as in לעפתא.אלת ססם ''for cpt ', (the) goddess of Ssm'' (Arsl.T. 1:1/2). This particular nonrepetition of prepositions tallies with both Byblian and biblical Hebrew.

ARAMAIC: A preposition stood before each nominal unit, regardless of whether this unit was a single noun. ⁷³ For example, the preposition was repeated in בארק ובשמין "on earth and in heaven" (Sf. I A 26; cf. I. 29) and מן בתיהם ומן יומיהם "as to their houses and as to their days" (Sf. II C 16/17; cf. I C 15/16). When the unit was a pair of nouns, the preposition stood before each pair, as for example in יוקדם מרדך וורפנת... וקדם נרגל ולץ וקדם שמש ונר "and before"

אבר "pass (away)!" (Arsl.T. 1:20) and אבר "go (away)!" (Arsl.T. 1:20) and י"go (away)!" (Arsl.T. 1:21) as infinitive absolutes functioning as imperatives. While this interpretation is possible, these verbs may have been imperatives as well. Similarly, אין in Arsl.T. 2:3 may have been a simple perfect, not an inf. abs. Further, Röllig suggested that (Arsl.T. 1:27) was an inf. construct of *rdd "to subdue" used as an imperative. In this case, though, the reading is either "forever," composed of the dative preposition + דר (cf. BH [dōr]), or simply 'give birth!" < *wld. Thus there are no unambiguous examples of the inf. (absolute) functioning as an imperative in standard Phoenician.

ARAMAIC: The infinitive never functioned as an imperative in Old Aramaic.

SAMALIAN: The infinitive does not appear to have functioned imperativally in Samalian. There is admittedly no infinitive absolute in the extant Samalian texts; all infinitives in these texts are construct. 96

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: There is one possible example of the infinitive absolute used as an imperative. ⁹⁷ In 16, של "place!" is parallel to the second person fem. sing. jussive מפרי "sew!" in the same line. Since this verb lacks a feminine ending, it cannot have been an imperative. Rather, של may have been an infinitive absolute used as an imperative. ⁹⁸

MOABITE: The infinitive did not function as an imperative in the extant Moabite texts. 99 The present sample of infinitives, however, is too small to permit any definite conclusions.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The infinitive absolute functioned as an imperative in the Arad letters, as seen in the form "give!" (Arad 1:2, 2:1, etc.) used side by side with m "give!" (Arad 3:2, 4:1, etc.). This particular usage, however, is infrequent in epigraphic Hebrew. 101

The use of the infinitive as an imperative is a common West Semitic feature. ¹⁰² This feature survived in Deir Alla and Hebrew, where the infinitive absolute functioned as an imperative. In Byblian, however, it was the infinitive construct which functioned as an imperative. In Aramaic and Samalian (and Moabite?), this feature did not survive.

7b. The infinitive in temporal clauses.

BYBLIAN: The infinitive does not appear to have been used in forming temporal clauses in this dialect. The one possible example, "when he placed him" (Ahirom 1), is probably composed of the temporal conjunction ב + finite verb + objective suffix. The evidence is too meager to draw any definite conclusions on this point, however.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: In the extant texts, the infinitive is not used to form temporal clauses. 104

ARAMAIC: The infinitive was not used to form temporal clauses in Old Aramaic. Temporal conjunctions marked the clause. 105

SAMALIAN: The infinitive was not used, at least in the extant Samalian texts, to form temporal clauses. 106

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: It does not appear that the infinitive was used to form temporal clauses in this dialect. The evidence is scanty, however.

MOABITE: The infinitive was used to form temporal clauses, as in בהלתחמה "when he fought" (Mesha 19). 107

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The infinitive was used to form temporal clauses in epigraphic Hebrew, as for example in בצאתי "when I left" (Arad 16:3), בחתמך "when you sealed" (Arad 13:3), etc.

According to Isserlin, ¹⁰⁸ the use of the infinitive in temporal clauses distinguishes Hebrew dialects. For him, the formation of temporal clauses with a preposition + infinitive was an "upper class" speech trait, whereas the use of temporal conjunctions (as in Yavneh-Yam 1:6.8) reflects "popular" speech. Yet it is impossible to draw such far-reaching conclusions from the evidence at hand. The initial distinction between "upper class" and "popular" speech (and texts) must be demonstrated for ancient Hebrew. Moreover, the distribution of these two types of temporal clauses is not clear; further examples are needed to chart the exact socioeconomic distribution of each construction in Hebrew. Isserlin's claim for a dialectal division of Hebrew on the basis of the form of the temporal clause, then, is unproven.

The use of the infinitive in temporal clauses is an old Semitic feature, found already in Akkadian 109 and Ugaritic. 110 In NWS, this

feature was retained in southern dialects, i.e. Moabite and Hebrew. In the northern dialects of Phoenician, Aramaic, and Samalian, and probably in the peripheral dialect of Deir Alla, this feature was lost. Its survival in first-millennium NWS, then, was sporadic.

7c. The use of the infinitive (absolute) as a finite verb.

BYBLIAN: No evidence. 111

ARAMAIC: The infinitive absolute did not function as a finite verb in Old Aramaic.

SAMALIAN: The infinitive did not function as a finite verb in Samalian. 112

AMMONITE: No evidence. 113

DEIR ALLA: The infinitive did not function as a finite verb in the Deir Alla dialect.

MOABITE: The infinitive did not function as a finite verb in Moabite.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The infinitive does not function as a finite verb in the epigraphic Hebrew texts. ¹¹⁴ The one alleged example of the infinitive absolute used as a finite verb, מו ראסט in Yavneh-Yam 1:5¹¹⁵ is doubtful. The converted imperfect appears four times in this text as the narrative, past tense; it would be odd for the author of this document to mix constructions. Thus, if מו verb, ¹¹⁶ it is preferable to

"he erected (it) and gave (it) to him" (Fekh. 10), יוצת "and I ran" (Br-Rkb 1:8), יושבת תלאים (Br-Rkb 1:8), etc. 124

The few attestations of the consecutive imperfect, in contrast to numerous examples of the historical perfect, suggest that the consecutive imperfect was already (becoming) obsolete by the ninth century (Zkr). Thereafter, the consecutive imperfect fell into total disuse. In this way, the syntactic situation in Old Aramaic of the ninth century is comparable to that of Hebrew in the sixth; the perfect usurped the function of the consecutive imperfect as a narrative, historical past tense. The occurrence of the perfect in the same syntactic position as the consecutive imperfect is especially curious. Whereas the consecutive imperfect was used only in initial position, the perfect later appears in this very position with the same "tense." In Old Aramaic, then, the perfect assumed the semantic and syntactic function of the consecutive imperfect.

samalian: The perfect, ¹²⁵ as for example in יותן.בידי "and (they) gave into my hands" (H 2; cf. 1, 8), חממן "and I erected" (H 14), "and I erected" (H 14), "and he unlocked ¹²⁶ the prisons and released" (P 8), etc. Alternatively, it is possible that the imperfect signified the narrative, past tense, as for example in "you placed a sword in my house, and you killed" (P 4/5). ¹²⁷ Yet the context of the passage is broken, and it is uncertain whether the verbs refer to past or present-future time. Furthermore, this clause may have been part of an apodosis, as inferred from the context, so that a prefixed verbal form would be expected. ¹²⁸ If the imperfect did carry a historical past tense, the relation between yqtl-past and qtl-past, and the distribution of these two forms, are unclear. In any case, the perfect in Samalian was the regular narrative, historical past tense.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: The consecutive imperfect. 129 as for example ייand they came' (1 1), ייאמרו ''and they said'' (1 2), ייקם ''and he arose'' (1 3), etc.

MOABITE: The consecutive imperfect, 130 as for example י'and I made'' (Mesha 3.9), ייבן ''and he built'' (Mesha 10), and ואהרג ''and I killed'' (Mesha 11.16).

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The consecutive imperfect, as for example "and they flowed" (Shiloah 4), ייקצר וויקצר "and he was harvesting and measuring" (Yavneh-Yam 1:4/5), and ייעלהו "and he brought him

up" (Lach. 4:6/7). During the course of the sixth century, however, the consecutive imperfect fell into disuse as the narrative, past tense. 131 The perfect took its place, as for example "I wrote" (Lach, 4:3), השב "he has returned" (Lach, 5:6), etc. The loss of the converted imperfect to the simple perfect is recorded in the later biblical texts as well. 132

Several verbal forms functioned as the narrative, historical past tense in the first-millennium NWS dialects. Most dialects-Old Aramaic (Zkr), the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew-used the old consecutive imperfect; this distribution suggests that the consecutive imperfect was a common NWS verb form. In the other dialects, the consecutive imperfect was lost. It was replaced by the perfect in Samalian, most Old Aramaic dialects (post-ninth century), and in late Hebrew (sixth century on). This replacement probably occurred independently in the different dialects. 133 Finally, in standard Phoenician the consecutive imperfect was replaced by the infinitive absolute; with respect to the first-millennium NWS dialects. 134 the use of the infinitive absolute as the narrative tense was a Phoenician syntactic trait. 135

One verbal form need not be the only form capable of signifying the historical past tense within each dialect. The linguistic situation in Old Aramaic and Hebrew indicates that one verbal form can be replaced by another over a period of time. Thus, while both dialects originally had the consecutive imperfect, they lost this form to the perfect. As these dialects changed over time, they tended to lose the consecutive imperfect.

The participle: The periphrastic tense ("to be" + participle).

BYBLIAN: A periphrastic tense does not appear in the extant texts.

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: The only possible example of the periphrastic tense in this dialect is Karatepe A II 3/4, ובמקמם אש כן לפנם "and in places which had formerly been feared." While the author could have conveyed a similar meaning by omitting jo, its inclusion served to emphasize the continuous state of fear which these "places" had in the past. Whereas the simple perfect בשתע* would have conveyed a one-time, past sense, the combination of expresses an ongoing sense, comparable to the French imparfait.

ARAMAIC: There are no certain examples of the periphrastic tense in Old Aramaic. Greenfield¹³⁷ has cited one possible example in Sf. III 22, ההי חלפה "and be his successor!" Yet while this phrase is composed of "to be" + participle, 138 the participle is nominal, not verbal. 139 Thus, Sf. III 22 is not an example of the periphrastic tense but is equivalent to "be!" + noun.

SAMALIAN: No example of the periphrastic tense appears in the extant Samalian texts.

AMMONITE: No example of the periphrastic tense appears in the extant Ammonite texts. The size of the corpus, however, is small.

DEIR ALLA: No example of the periphrastic tense appears in the extant Deir Alla texts. The absence of a periphrastic tense may, however, be accidental.

MOABITE: No example of the periphrastic tense appears in the extant Moabite texts. The absence of a periphrastic tense may, however, be accidental.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: One example of the periphrastic tense appears in Yavneh-Yam 1:2/3, 140 עבדך קצר. היה. עבדך "as for your servant, your servant was harvesting." Like the periphrastic tense in Karatepe A II 3/4, this example in Hebrew stressed the continuousness of the action. While the simple perfect would have conveyed a single action at a single point in time, the periphrastic tense emphasized that the harvesting was a habitual action. Cf. similarly in Mishnaic Hebrew. as studied by Greenfield. 141

Use of the periphrastic tense is sporadically attested during this period in the history of NWS dialects. Of the first-millennium dialects, only standard Phoenician and Hebrew show any trace of this feature. Each of these two dialects, moreover, exhibits only one example of the periphrastic tense. In the later periods, the periphrastic tense became common in Hebrew and Aramaic dialects independently. 142

10. The verb "to be able" + complementary verb.

PHOENICIAN: יכל + infinitive. The only example of this construction is the uncertain passage in Karatepe A II 5/6, אשת תכל חד ARAMAIC: בלאכהל לאשלח ייthus I will not be able to send'' (Sf. II B 6), וליכהל י'and he will not be able to send'' (Sf. I B 25), etc. This construction of בהל + asyndetic imperfect is also found in the later BMAP 2:13, 3:14.17, etc. 149

A second construction, "to be able" + complementary infinitive, may be attested in Sf. I B 34. Most scholars 150 read . . . [לכ[הל] 'he will not be able to send," and interpreted the construction as י hinfinitive; cf. the later Ahiqar 17 and Dan. 2:10. 151 Degen 152 was sensitive to the syntax of this construction. Observing that הוא is always followed by an imperfect in Old Aramaic, and also recognizing that the mem in למשלח is very faint, he proposed the reading אלישלח. If confirmed, 153 this reading would remove the only possible example of בהל hinfinitive in the Old Aramaic corpus.

SAMALIAN: No evidence. Cf., however, the complementary infinitive in א]ל.יתן.לה.לאכל "may he not allow him to eat" (H 23) and "he summoned me to build" (H 13).

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. The restoration ליכֹ[ל.לאכל] "and he was unable to eat" (1 3)¹⁵⁴ is hypothetical.

MOABITE: No evidence.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: יכל + lamedh + infinitive construct, as in [אי]נגור. יכל + ''we are not able to send'' (Arad 40:13/14), as well as similar constructions in BH.

The evidence of three dialects, with respect to the syntax of the construction "to be able to . . . ," suggests a bipartite division within NWS. In Phoenician, Hebrew, and possibly Samalian, the construction was '+ infinitive construct. In Old Aramaic, the construction took the form + casyndetic) imperfect. And within

In the eastern and southern regions, however, the verb did not necessarily stand in initial position. In the Adon letter, for example, the verb followed the subject in II. 4.6.8¹⁶⁰ although each passage was a main clause. In the Fekh, text, the verb appeared in medial (e.g., II. 17.18.19, etc.) and final position (e.g., II. 15.15, etc.). 161 And in Halaf Ost. 1 Rev. 1/2, the verb stood in final position. Similarly, in contrast to Nerab 1:11, 2:3.6 where the verb stood first. in Nerab 1:1/2.9.10/11, 2:4.5/6.7.9.10 the verb was not initial. 162 Cf. the Old Aramaic text published by Bordreuil, 163 where the verb stood first in II. 6.10 and last in I. 2.164 Whereas, then, western Old Aramaic texts had predominantly verb-initial syntax (excepting emphatic positioning), eastern and southern Old Aramaic texts reflect a fluidity in verb placement; 165 in these eastern and southern texts. the verb could appear in initial, medial, or final position, without any semantic difference.

SAMALIAN The verb predominantly stood in initial position in Samalian, as for example in H 2.3.4.8, etc., and P 2.3.3.4, etc. 166 When the verb was not initial, however, the word which stood in initial position received special stress, as for example in H 24, P 14, and 1/2. In P 1, the syntax O-V may reflect the added stress on the object. Alternatively, the clause may be an unmarked relative clause, "this stele (which) Br-Rkb set up." Thus Samalian syntax generally reflects the verb-initial pattern.

AMMONITE: The verb stood first in the sentence, as in Sir. 6-8 and Cit. 6. If, however, Horn's 167 restoration מולכם. בנה. לך "Milkom" has built for you" (Cit. 1) is correct, S may have preceded V in Ammonite.

DEIR ALLA: 168 The verb generally stood first in the sentence, as for example in 1 2.5.6, etc., and II 6.11.12, etc. In several cases, however, V followed S, without any apparent semantic difference. Thus מלכן. יחוו (II 13) appears to mean "(the) kings will see," and ינקל.רחמן.יענה "and the voice of (the) vultures will answer" (18). Cf. similarly 1.7/8 and (?) Xd 2. The S-V syntax in 1.5, however, may reflect a subordinate clause. In short, while the Deir Alla syntax was usually verb-initial, V could follow S.

MOABITE: All main clauses in Moabite reflect verb-initial syntax, as in Mesha 5.6.7.8/9, etc. The only 169 deviation from this pattern appeared when the independent pronoun is found with the finite verb (Mesha 2/3, 21.22, etc.); in these cases, the pronoun always preceded the verb for emphatic stress. Cf. similarly Mesha 17.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The verb generally stood in initial position in the epigraphic texts. Thus, in the texts from Arad (e.g., 2:1-4, 3:5/6, 5:2/3, etc.), Jerusalem (e.g., Shiloah 3.4), Lachish (e.g., 2:4, 6:13/14), and Ajrud (e.g., ברך.ימם), verb-initial syntax is apparent. When either the subject 170 or object 171 was placed before the verb, that particular element was given added emphasis. Yet there are very few examples of the postponement of the verb to either medial or final position in the Hebrew texts.

The NWS dialects of the first-millennium divide into two groups, depending upon the position the verb commonly occupied in main clauses. Most dialects exhibit verb-initial syntax; if preceded by any part of speech, the verb followed simple conjunctions or particles. This verb-initial syntax is found in Phoenician dialects, Old Aramaic from the (north-) western region, Samalian, Ammonite (?), the Deir Alla dialect, Moabite, and Hebrew. Comparative evidence suggests that verb-initial word order is the standard West Semitic pattern. 172

In the eastern and southern regions of Old Aramaic, this verbinitial syntax was more flexible. The verb could appear in either medial or final position, in addition to the old initial position, without affecting the meaning of the main clause. This flexibility was also found in the Deir Alla texts, in which several examples of S-V syntax appeared in main clauses.

In view of the geographic position of Deir Alla in the southeastern region of Syria-Palestine, and the other linguistic features it shares with Old Aramaic, 173 the freedom in the placement of the verb in Deir Alla can be related to the identical phenomenon in eastern and southern Syro-Palestinian Old Aramaic. In terms of dialect geography, this feature may have spread from eastern/southern Aramaic to Deir Alla, or from an external source to eastern/southern Aramaic and Deir Alla simultaneously 174 Alternatively, this syntax may have arisen independently in both dialects. 175

12. The marking or nonmarking of the definite, nominal direct object.

BYBLIAN: The definite, nominal direct object was unmarked in Old Byblian, as for example עלי.גבל.ויגל.ארן.זן "and if he

attacks Byblos and uncovers this coffin" (Ahirom 2) and יארך. ימת. יחמלך. ושנתו "may they lengthen the days of Yehimilk and his years" (Yehimilk 3–5; cf. Shiptibaal 4–5). In later Byblian, this direct object could be introduced by the *nota accusativi*, as in standard Phoenician. 176

STANDARD PHOENICIAN: The definite, nominal direct object was usually unmarked in standard Phoenician. In the Karatepe inscription, however, it was occasionally introduced by the *nota accusativi*. For example, when the author himself was the direct object of a verb, the *nota accusativi* introduced his name (Karatepe A III 3, C III 17). When, on the contrary, the author's enemies were the direct object, they were preceded by the *nota accusativi* (Karatepe A III 19–IV 1; cf. Yehawmilk 15). Or if the definite direct object was particularly contrastive, the object received the *nota accusativi* (Karatepe C IV 18/19). Finally, if the object was the focus, or emphasis, of the sentence, it was marked by the *nota accusativi* (Karatepe A I 3/4, III 14/15 = C IV 17). In standard Phoenician, then, the *nota accusativi* marked objects that were of particular interest to the author; 177 its use was subject to individual style.

ARAMAIC: As in standard Phoenician, the definite, nominal direct object was usually unmarked. The nota accusativi appeared only in the Sfire and Zkr inscriptions. In Sfire, the nota accusativi is found when the direct object was either Matti'el and his family (Sf. 1 B 32/33, II C 14; cf. III 13) or Bar-Ga'yah and his realm (Sf. II C 5/6). In Zkr's inscription, אים appeared only before nouns signifying Zkr's own achievements (Zkr B 5.10.11 [?].15.16/17; cf. Zkr B 19); one striking exception is אונה.בניןת.חזרך ''ו built Hazrek'' (Zkr B 3/4), where the independent pronoun preceded the verb. According to present evidence, then, the nota accusativi in Old Aramaic functioned similarly to its standard Phoenician counterpart: It marked direct objects that were of particular interest to the author.

In one instance, the definite, nominal direct object may have been introduced by *lamedh*. In Sf. I C 4/5, [מעבר[א] יעבר[א] 'may they make good relations' may exhibit O-V syntax, in which the direct object was preceded by *lamedh*. Yet since this syntactic feature is common in later East Aramaic dialects, 179 it would be odd for it to appear in this early Aramaic text from the West. 180

SAMALIAN: The definite, nominal direct object was unmarked, as for example in ער.יזכר.נבש.פנמו "in order that he remember the soul of Panammu" (H 17), יהרג.אבה.ברצר "and he killed his father.

Brṣr' (P 3), והרפי.שבי.יארי "and he released the captives of Y'dy" (P 8), etc.

AMMONITE: No evidence.

DEIR ALLA: No evidence. Since no definite, nominal direct objects appeared in the extant texts, the absence of a nota accusativi may be accidental.

MOABITE: The definite, nominal direct object was marked or unmarked, with almost equal frequency. The definite object was not marked when the subjective independent pronoun accompanied the finite verb, as in אנך.בנתי.ערער "I built Aroer" (Mesha 26) and אנך.בער "I built Bezer" (Mesha 27); 181 cf. Zkr B 3/4. Otherwise, accusativi introduced places oppressed (e.g., "Omri took possession of the whole "Omri took possession" וורש.עמרי.את.כןל.ארןץ.מהדבא land of Medaba" [Mesha 7/8; cf. II. 5.6.14]) and rebuilt (e.g., יו את.בעלמען "l built Baalmaon" [Mesha 9; cf. II. 9/10.10/11. 18/19)). Similarly, examples of great achievement were marked with as in ואהרג.את.כל.העם "and I killed the entire people" (Mesha and I settled in it Šrn-ites ואשב.בה.את.אש.שרן.ואת.אש מחרת and Mhrt-ites" (Mesha 13/14; cf. II. 12.30/31). Apparently, examples of lesser achievement were unmarked, as איני "and I made this highplace" (Mesha 3) and אשנה.בה.האשרח "and I made the cistern in it" (Mesha 9). Thus, use of the nota accusativi was not construction-bound, 182 since it appeared after various verbal forms in all three persons. Rather, the nota accusativi marked objects in which the author was particularly interested. In this way, the nota accusativi and independent subjective pronoun were mutually exclusive; both parts of speech were, in effect, emphatic.

EDOMITE: No evidence.

HEBREW: The nota accusativi usually introduced the definite, nominal direct object. Examples of the nonmarking of the object are relatively few, as for example יכתב.שם הים "and write the name of the day!" (Arad 1:3/4), השב. עבדך. השפר "your servant has returned the letters" (Lach. 5:6/7), etc. 183 In the majority of cases, nx introduced the object, as in ישמע יהוה.את ארני "may Yahweh cause my lord to hear" (Lach. 2:1/2, 8 Obv. 1, etc.), דכר.ארני.את.[ע]בדה "my lord remembered his servant" (Lach. 2:4/5), שלח את נחם "send" "and I sent the silver" (Arad 16:9/10), ישלחתי את ה[ב]סף "and I sent the silver" (Arad 16:4/5), לא נראה את.עוקה "we cannot see Azeqah" (Lach. 4:12/13), and especially אשר יפתח את זאת "who opens this" (Silwan B 2/3). These latter examples suggest that the category of "defiWithin that group of dialects which introduced the apodosis with a conjunction, different conjunctions were used. Old Aramaic and Samalian, which possessed the conjunction *pa "thus, therefore," used this conjunction to mark the apodosis. This use of *pa is a common West Semitic feature (cf. the Arabic fa of apodosis). In those dialects which lacked *pa, however, *wa performed this function, as in standard Phoenician and Hebrew. Here too, *wa is a common clausal conjunction. The particle used to mark the apodosis, then, depended upon the inventory of conjunctive particles in the individual dialects.

Notes to Chapter 4

- See Helmer Ringgren, "A Note on the Karatepe Text," Oriens 2 (1949): 127–128.
- 2. André Dupont-Sommer, "Azitawadda, roi des Danouniens. Étude sur les inscriptions phéniciennes de Karatepe," RA 42 (1948): 171; idem, "Etude du texte phénicien des inscriptions de Karatepe," Oriens 2 (1949): 126; and A. M. Honeyman, "Phoenician Inscriptions from Karatepe," Le Muséon 61 (1948): 54. Cf. Stanislav Segert, A Grammar of Phoenician and Punic (Munich: C. H. Beck, 1976), §§74.262, 75.473, 64.624.2.
- 3. Additional texts are cited by Ringgren, *Oriens* 2 (1949): 127–128; and by Dupont-Sommer, *Oriens* 2 (1949): 126. Cf. Frank M. Cross, "Leaves from an Epigraphist's Notebook," *CBQ* 36 (1974): 489 n. 31.
- 4. Eduard Y. Kutscher, A History of Aramaic. Part 1: Old Aramaic, Jaudic, Official Aramaic (Biblical Aramaic excepted) (Jerusalem: Akadamon, 1972), pp. 117-118 (in Hebrew). Cf. Stephen A. Kaufman, The Akkadian Influences on Aramaic, Assyriological Studies, vol. 19 (Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press, 1974), pp. 131-132.
- 5. Hans Bauer and Pontus Leander, Grammatik des Biblisch-Aramäischen (Halle an der Saale: Max Niemeyer, 1927), §90j.
- 6. Cf. Theodor Nöldeke, *Die Inschrift des Königs Mesa von Moab* (Kiel: Schwers'sche Buchhandlung, 1870), p. 35, against which see Chapter 3, nos. 23i and 11a.
- 7. In Frank M. Cross and David N. Freedman, EHO, p. 47 n. 11. See also KAI 2:181-182.
- 8. Cross, "The Cave Inscriptions from Khirbet Beit Lei," in *Near Eastern Archaeology in the Twentieth Century*, ed. James A. Sanders (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1970), p. 305 n. 3.
- 9. The reading is Naveh's, in "Old Hebrew Inscriptions in a Burial Cave," *IEJ* 13 (1963): 84.
- 10. See Yohanan Aharoni, *Arad Inscriptions* (Jerusalem: The Bialik Institute and the Israel Exploration Society, 1975), p. 34 (in Hebrew). For the identical BH usage, see *GKC* §90c.
 - 11. Cross, in Near Eastern Archaeology, p. 301.

- 12. Carl Brockelmann, GvG 2:§152. For the Akkadian usage, see Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, pp. 131–132.
- 13. Note the translation of Franz Rosenthal, "Notes on the Third Aramaic Inscription from Sefire-Sûjîn," BASOR 158 (1960): 29; and idem, "Canaanite and Aramaic Inscriptions," in ANET³, p. 661.
 - 14. For the emphatic אית in Aramaic, see no. 12 below.
 - 15. For a discussion of the form, see Chapter 3, no. 15a.
- 16. Cross, "Epigraphic Notes on the Amman Citadel Inscription," BASOR 193 (1969): 17.
- 17. Raphael Kutscher, "A New Inscription from 'Amman," Qadmoniot 5 (1972): 27, 28 (in Hebrew).
- 18. Emile Puech and Alexander Rofé, "L'inscription de la citadelle d'Amman," RB 80 (1973): 536.
 - 19. See Chapter 3, nos. 11a and 11b.
- 20. So Jo Ann Carlton (Hackett), "Studies in the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Alla" (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1980), pp. 46, 140; and Baruch A. Levine, "The Deir 'Alla Plaster Inscriptions," JAOS 101 (1981): 200.
- 21. On ידעתה, see Ziony Zevit, Matres Lectionis in Ancient Hebrew Epigraphs, ASOR Monograph Series, vol. 2 (Cambridge: ASOR, 1980), p. 31; and H. Van Dyke Parunak, "The Orthography of the Arad Ostraca," BASOR 230 (1978): 28.
- 22. Ze'ev Meshel and Carol Meyers, "The Name of God in the Wilderness of Zin," BA 39 (1976): 10, fig. 4.
- 23. Within the confines of the available evidence. For conditions requiring use of the nota accusativi + suffix, see GKC §117e.
 - 24. For comparative evidence, see Brockelmann, GvG 2:§215.
- 25. See Zellig S. Harris, Development of the Canaanite Dialects, American Oriental Series, vol. 16 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1939), pp. 68-69.
- 26. The article began to be used with the noun in the later period. See, for example, המשכב זן "this coffin" (KAI 9 A 1), הערפת זא "this colonnade" (Yehawmilk 6), etc.
- 27. Thomas O. Lambdin, "The Junctural Origin of the West Semitic Definite Article," in Near Eastern Studies in Honor of William Foxwell Albright, ed. Hans Goedicke (Baltimore/London: The Johns Hopkins Press, 1971), pp. 328-329 with n. 23. Cf. Harris, A Grammar of the Phoenician Language, American Oriental Series, vol. 8 (New Haven: American Oriental Society, 1936), pp. 56, 66; and Johannes Friedrich and Wolfgang Röllig, PPG² §300.
 - 28. See Chapter 2, no. 16.
- 29. See already J. Halévy, "Les Deux Inscriptions hétéennes de Zindjîrlî," RS 1 (1893): 143.
 - 30. See Chapter 3, no. 5, for the NWS definite article.
- 31. André Caquot and André Lemaire, "Les textes araméens de Deir 'Alla," Syria 54 (1977): 194.
- 32. P. Kyle McCarter, "The Balaam Texts from Deir 'Alla: The First Combination," BASOR 239 (1980): 51, 52.

- 33. See Chapter 3, no. 2c with nn. 38-41.
- 34. Harris, Development, p. 69.
- 35. See above, p. 149 n. 28.
- 36. Lambdin, in Near Eastern Studies . . . Albright, p. 321.
- 37. Ibid., pp. 315-333, esp. pp. 321-324.
- 38. Excluding seals with 5 + PN.
- 39. Segert, Grammar, §61.46. Cf. ibid., §15.1.
- 40. Published by Dupont-Sommer, "Deux nouvelles inscriptions sémitiques trouvées en Cilicie," *JKF* 1 (1950): 43-45. See also Giovanni Garbini, "I dialetti del fenicio," *AION* 27 (1977): 291 with n. 30. This interpretation presumes, of course, that w was not part of the name.
- 41. See Harris, Grammar, pp. 63-64; and Segert, Grammar. \$75.721.23. Cf. Stanley Gevirtz, "On the Etymology of the Phoenician Particle wκ," JNES 16 (1957): 124 n. 8.
- 42. So, for example, Dupont-Sommer, "Un papyrus araméen d'époque saîte découvert à Saqqarah," *Semitica* 1 (1948): 49; H. L. Ginsberg, "An Aramaic Contemporary of the Lachish Letters," *BASOR* 111 (1948): 26 (translation only); and *KAI* 2:313.
- 43. J. Hoftijzer, "Interpretation and Grammar," in *Aramaic Texts from Deir 'Alla*, ed. J. Hoftijzer and G. van der Kooij. Documenta et Monumenta Orientis Antiqui, vol. 19 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1976), p. 267. See also p. 11.
- 44. For the phrase א סחרתי of my vicinity" (Sf. III 7/8), see Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, p. 130 n. 74. A periphrastic possessive in $\pi + \forall + \text{suffix}$, as in Sf. III 20 and Nerab 1:14 (so Segert, Altaramäische Grammatik [Leipzig: VEB Verlag Enzyklopädie, 1975], §6.2.5.6) is also dubious since, instead of meaning "my. yours," etc., the construction is a verbless clause. In Sf. III 20, for example, אין means "if that which is mine is returned to me," and similarly Nerab 1:14 means "that which is yours will be protected." The relative π functions as an independent relative, as the orthography with yodh shows. Both examples, then, are verbless clauses acting as the subject of the verb. The particle π retains its relative force. Cf. Paul Joüon, Grammaire de l'hébreu biblique (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1923), §§1581, 145a.
- 45. Kaufman, "Si'gabbar, Priest of Sahr in Nerab," JAOS 90 (1970): 270–271; and idem, "[Review of Segert, Grammatik]," BiOr 34 (1977): 94.
- 46. Paul-E. Dion, *La langue de Ya'udi* (Waterloo, Ont.: The Corporation for the Publication of Academic Studies in Religion in Canada, 1974), pp. 235–236.
 - 47. GKC §129h.
 - 48. Naveh, IEJ 13 (1963): 84.
 - 49. See Cross, in Near Eastern Archaeology, p. 301.
 - 50. Brockelmann, GvG 2:§§164-167.
 - 51. Excluding the construction of "every, any" + noun + relative.
- 52. See Lambdin, in *Near Eastern Studies . . . Albright*, pp. 318–319 with n. 7. Cf. Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*² \$293. For the determined sense, see Josh. 24:14 and 1 Sam. 24:6; cf. Ex. 21:28, Lev. 26:5, and Num. 21:9.

- 53. For this reason, the problematic הברך בעל (Karatepe A I I) is best interpreted as cognate to Akkadian abarakku. See above, pp. 130, 161 n. 340.
 - 54. See Chapter 2, no. 16.
 - 55. Cf. Lambdin, in Near Eastern Studies . . . Albright, pp. 321-322.
- 56. For suggestions, see ibid., p. 318 n. 7; and Klaus Beyer, "[Review of Degen, *Grammatik*]," *ZDMG* 120 (1970): 202, on Sfire; and Kaufman, "Reflections on the Assyrian-Aramaic Bilingual from Tell Fakhariyeh," *Maarav* 3 (1982): 148 n. 27, on Fekh. 23.
- 57. The absence of a definite article on now is yet another feature which isolates the dialect of the Kilamu scepter inscription from standard Phoenician. For other traits, see Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, p. 8 n. 7.
- 58. See Francis I. Andersen, "Moabite Syntax," Or 35 (1966): 95–96, for a discussion of the possible interpretations.
 - 59. See Chapter 2, no. 16.
 - 60. Jouon, Grammaire, §158f.
- 61. Lambdin, in Near Eastern Studies . . . Albright, pp. 318–319, 321–322.
 - 62. See above, nn. 52, 56.
 - 63. Harris, Grammar, p. 62.
 - 64. Cf. ibid.
- 65. Within that group of dialects which used a form of the lamedh as the negation, only Hebrew had a final aleph in this period. The presence of the final aleph, however, does not reflect a genetic difference from the Aramaic-Deir Alla -5; it was merely a phonetic, syllable-closing aleph. Such a syllable-closing aleph is generally found after a-vowels in accented, final position (see Brockelmann, GvG 1:§§37dα, 107tα). For example, the Arabic-Ethiopic demonstrative [da, za] appeared in late Byblian and Old Aramaic as m "this" (fem. sing.), with final aleph; cf. Moabite, Hebrew, and Fekh.-Aramaic איז "this" (fem. sing.). Similarly, the conjunction *pa of Arabic and Ugaritic appeared in Samalian as kb three times, two of which were followed by a word divider, indicating the independent status of the word (Rosenthal, "[Review of Dion, La langue]," JBL 95 [1976]: 154). Further, the Hebrew particle of entreaty x2- is cognate to EA -na. These examples indicate that the final aleph in the Hebrew negation was merely a phonological development; when a word ended in [a, a], and when that syllable was stressed, that final syllable could be closed with an aleph. This aleph, however, appeared only on words which themselves received an added stress, due either to the meaning or syntactic position of the word. Cf. Lambdin, in Near Eastern Studies . . . Albright, p. 323 with n. 14.
 - 66. Brockelmann, GvG 1:§253A: 2:§§105-109.
- 67. Ginsberg, "[Review of Harris, Grammar]," JBL 56 (1937): 140; and idem, "Ugaritico-Phoenicia," JANES 5 (1973): 144 n. 58. Ginsberg credited Hoffmann (Über einige phön. Inschriften, p. 41) with first interpreting the syntax here correctly.
 - 68. GKC §152m.
 - 69. See also Brockelmann, GvG 2:§§57-59.

- 70. Ronald J. Williams, *Hebrew Syntax: An Outline*, 2nd ed. (Toronto/Buffalo: University of Toronto Press, 1976), §§406–411, 569.
 - 71. Ibid., §70.
 - 72. Cf. Segert, Grammar, §§75.462, 75.843.
- 73. See Joseph A. Fitzmyer, *The Aramaic Inscriptions of Sefire*, Biblica et Orientalia, vol. 19 (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1967), pp. 180–181.
 - 74. Dion, La langue, p. 250.
- 75. See Ahirom I (Byblian), Arsl.T. 1:1/2 (standard Phoenician), Sf. I A I (Old Aramaic), and BH.
 - 76. See already Andersen. Or 35 (1966): 88-89.
 - 77. See p. 177.
 - 78. GKC §112q.
 - 79. Cf. ibid., §§112p. ii.
 - 80. See also n. 149 below.
- 81. Helga and Manfred Weippert, "Die 'Bileam'-Inschrift von Tell Dēr 'Allā," ZDPV 98 (1982): 88. Cf. Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," p. 63.
 - 82. Weippert and Weippert, ZDPV 98 (1982): 99.
 - 83. See GKC §112r.
 - 84. See Jouon, Grammaire, §177e.
- 85. Lemaire, "L'ostracon 'Ramat-Negeb' et la topographie historique du Negeb." Semitica 23 (1973): 14, 15.
 - 86. As read by Cross, in Near Eastern Archaeology, p. 301.
- 87. So, for example, William F. Albright and William L. Moran, "A Re-interpretation of an Amarna Letter from Byblos (EA 82)," *JCS* 2 (1948): 244 n. 7.
 - 88. So, for example, B-L §36s.
- 89. Frank M. Cross and Richard J. Saley, "Phoenician Incantations on a Plaque of the Seventh Century B.C. from Arslan Tash in Upper Syria," BASOR 197 (1970): 46 n. 23a.
 - 90. See Chapter 3, no. 24b.
 - 91. So, for example, Caquot, Gaster, and Röllig.
 - 92. Cross, CBQ 36 (1974): 488 n. 21.
 - 93. Röllig, "Die Amulette von Arslan Tas," NESE 2 (1974): 26.
 - 94. So Cross and Saley, BASOR 197 (1970): 47 with n. 39.
 - 95. So KAI 2:47.
 - 96. Dion, La langue, p. 273.
 - 97. See Chapter 3, no. 22a.
 - 98. Cf., however, p. 162 n. 354.
- 99. For the Moabite infinitive, see Segert, "Die Sprache der moabitischen Königsinschrift," ArOr 29 (1961): 224.
- 100. Aharoni, "Hebrew Ostraca from Tel Arad," *IEJ* 16 (1966): 2 n. 2; and idem, *Arad Inscriptions*, pp. 12, 18 (in Hebrew).
 - 101. See the examples cited by Joüon, Grammaire, §123u.
 - 102. Brockelmann, GvG 2:§10a.
- 103. So, for example, Hayim Tawil, "A Note on the Ahiram Inscription," JANES 3/1 (1970–1971): 34 (earlier literature on p. 34 n. 13). The prefixed 5, then, was the particle *kī.

- 104. See Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §§323, 268.
- 105. See Rainer Degen. Altaramäische Grammatik der Inschriften des 10.-8. Jh. v. Chr., Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, vol. 38/3 (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1969), §§78, 93.
 - 106. Dion, La langue, pp. 272-274, 318.
 - 107. Cf. Andersen, Or 35 (1966): 106-108.
- 108. B. S. J. Isserlin, "Epigraphically attested Judean Hebrew, and the question of 'upper class' (Official) and 'popular' speech variants in Judea during the 8th-6th centuries B.C.," AJBA 2/1 (1972): 202-203.
 - 109. Wolfram von Soden, GAG §150g.
 - 110. Cyrus H. Gordon, UT §§9.26, 13.56.
 - 111. Yet see below, no. 8.
 - 112. Dion, La langue, p. 272.
- 113. Cf. Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 18 with n. 8, although the form cited is probably a perfect (see Chapter 3, no. 23b).
- 114. The situation is more complex in BH, where the infinitive absolute did function as a finite verb, for which see John Huesman, "Finite Uses of the Infinitive Absolute," *Bibl* 37 (1956): 271–295, esp. pp. 284–295. The distinction between this use of the infinitive absolute and the consecutive imperfect remains to be studied.
- 115. Cross, "Epigraphic Notes on Hebrew Documents of the Eighth-Sixth Centuries B.C.: II. The Murabba'at Papyrus and the Letter Found Near Yabneh-Yam," BASOR 165 (1962): 44-45 n. 43; and KAI 2:200.
- 116. Shemaryahu Talmon ("The New Hebrew Letter from the Seventh Century B.c. in Historical Perspective," BASOR 176 [1964]: 30) and Albright ("Palestinian Inscriptions." in ANET³, p. 568 with n. 5), for example, understood now as a noun and linked the waw to the preceding verb.
 - 117. Gordon, UT §9.29.
- 118. Albright, "The Phoenician Inscriptions of the Tenth Century B.C. from Byblus." JAOS 67 (1947): 156 n. 24, followed by Roger T. O'Callaghan, "The Great Phoenician Portal Inscription from Karatepe," Or 18 (1949): 190; Cross and Freedman, EHO, p. 14; Segert, Grammar, §64.444; and Joshua Blau, "Hebrew and North West Semitic: Reflections on the Classification of the Semitic Languages," Hebrew Annual Review 2 (1978): 38.
- 119. So Harris, *Grammar*, p. 40; and idem, *Development*, p. 47. Cf. Kaufman, *Akkadian Influences*, p. 155 n. 75; and Friedrich and Röllig, *PPG*², p. 134 n. 1.
- 120. For additional examples, see Dupont-Sommer, RA 42 (1948): 182; and Weippert, "Elemente phönikischer und kilikischer Religion in den Inschriften vom Karatepe," in XVII. Deutscher Orientalistentag... Würzburg. Vorträge, ed. Wolfgang Voigt. ZDMG Supplementa. vol. 1, pt. 1 (Wiesbaden: Franz Steiner, 1969), p. 194 n. 9. Cf. Friedrich and Röllig, PPG² §267 with n. 1 (p. 135).
- 121. O'Callaghan, "The Phoenician Inscription on the King's Statue at Karatepe." *CBQ* 11 (1949): 239. Cf. David Marcus, "Studies in Ugaritic Grammar 1," *JANES* 1/2 (1969): 59.

- 122. See above, p. 157 n. 221.
- 123. Degen, Grammatik, pp. 114-115 with n. 21 (with earlier literature); Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, p. 155; and idem, BiOr 34 (1977): 96.
- 124. Additional examples are listed by Degen, Grammatik, §74a. Cf. Fitzmyer, Sefire, p. 170.
 - 125. Dion, La langue, pp. 259-260.
 - 126. For the translation, see Rosenthal, JBL 95 (1976): 154.
 - 127. So Dion, La langue, pp. 263-266.
 - 128. See, for example, H 20ff.15ff.
- 129. So, for example, Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, p. 296; Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 63, 150; and McCarter, BASOR 239 (1980): 50.
- 130. See already Nöldeke, Mesa, pp. 31-32. Cf. Segert, ArOr 29 (1961): 223, 229,
- 131. Harris, Development, p. 47; and Albright, "A Reëxamination of the Lachish Letters," BASOR 73 (1939): 21.
 - 132. See GKC §112pp(a) with n. 2.
- 133. For other examples, see Brockelmann, GvG 2:§§77cβ, 78dα, 79ca.
 - 134. This condition therefore excludes Ugaritic.
- 135. Ginsberg, "The Northwest Semitic Languages," in Patriarchs, ed. B. Mazar. The World History of the Jewish People, vol. 2 ([New Brunswick, N.J.]: Rutgers University Press, 1970), p. 105.
 - 136. Segert, Grammar, §64.722.3. In Karatepe A I 15, עבר is nominal.
- 137. Jonas C. Greenfield, "The 'Periphrastic Imperative' in Aramaic and Hebrew," IEJ 19 (1969): 201.
- 138. Rosenthal, BASOR 158 (1960): 30 n. 12 (one possibility); and Fitzmyer, "A Further Note on the Aramaic Inscription Sefire III.22," JSS 14 (1969): 199-200.
 - 139. Cf. Degen, Grammatik, §77.
- 140. James F. Ross, "Prophecy in Hamath, Israel, and Mari," HTR 63 (1970): 23 n. 80; and Albright, in ANET³, p. 568 (translation only). Cf. Dennis Pardee, "The Judicial Plea from Mesad Hashavyahu (Yavneh-Yam): A New Philological Study," Maarav 1 (1978): 40-41, 36.
 - 141. Greenfield, IEJ 19 (1969): 209-210.
 - 142. Ibid., pp. 199-210.
- 143. Gordon, "Azitawadd's Phoenician Inscription," JNES 8 (1949): 114, 110.
 - 144. Rosenthal, in ANET³, p. 654.
 - 145. So Gordon, JNES 8 (1949): 114.
- 146. E. Lipiński, "From Karatepe to Pyrgi. Middle Phoenician Miscellanea," RSF 2 (1974): 48, though he translated the phrase differently.
- 147. See Wilfred Watson, "Shared Consonants in Northwest Semitic," Bibl 50 (1969): 525-533.
- 148. Cf. P. Swiggers, "Karatepe A II 5-6/B I 13-14/C III 3-4," RSF 9 (1981): 143-146.
- 149. Fitzmyer, Sefire, p. 66 (with list). The syntax of this construction, verb + complementary imperfect, is reminiscent of the Old Aramaic pur-

pose clause, in which a verb could be followed by an imperfect: see, for example, אתה + imperfect in the meaning "he came in order to . . ." in Sf. III 11/12.12.12 (asyndetic) and Sf. III 11 (syndetic). Yet also note the complementary infinitive in Sf. I B 32.32.

150. KAI, Fitzmyer, etc.

151. Segert, Grammatik, §6.6.5.6.1.

152. Degen, Grammatik, p. 15, §§84.1, 88, followed by Kaufman, BiOr 34 (1977): 95, and idem, Maarav 3 (1982): 151 n. 36.

153. The handcopy in the *editio princeps* shows only traces of this letter. While Degen's reading may therefore be the correct one, at least syntactically, the faint traces seem to indicate a *mem*. Only a new reading of this passage would clarify this difficulty.

154. So, for example, McCarter, BASOR 239 (1980): 51, 52; and Carlton (Hackett), "Studies," pp. 40, 157.

155. See Brockelmann, GvG 2:§§337-341; and von Soden, GAG §150e.

156. Segert, Grammar, §76.24.

157. Word order in the second Arslan Tash text is not yet clear. Compare, for example, the translations of Gaster and Cross (in Cross, *CBQ* 36 [1974]: 486–487 [Gaster's], 488–489 [Cross']).

158. Cf. Yehimilk 2.

Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, p. 132. Cf. Greenfield, "The Dialects of Early Aramaic," JNES 37 (1978): 94, 95.

160. See already Dupont-Sommer, Semitica 1 (1948): 52 with n. 2.

161. Note that here, and throughout these dialects, there was no syntactic difference between declarative and volitive clauses.

162. See Kaufman, Maaray 3 (1982): 154.

163. Pierre Bordreuil, "Une tablette araméenne inédite de 635 av. J.-C.," Semitica 23 (1973): 95-102.

164. Kaufman, "An Assyro-Aramaic egirtu ša šulmu," in Essays on the Ancient Near East in Memory of Jacob Joel Finkelstein, ed. Maria deJong Ellis. Memoirs of the Connecticut Academy of Arts & Sciences, vol. 19 (Hamden, Conn.: Archon Books, 1977), p. 120.

165. See idem, Akkadian Influences, p. 132.

166. Dion, La langue, p. 283; idem, "The Language Spoken in Ancient Sam'al," JNES 37 (1978): 118; and Segert, Grammatik, §7.3.3.4.1. See also Greenfield, "Dialect Traits in Early Aramaic," Leshonenu 32 (1968): 364 n. 29 (in Hebrew).

167. Siegfried Horn, "The Amman Citadel Inscription," ADAJ 12–13 (1967–1968): 83; idem, "The Amman Citadel Inscription," BASOR 193 (1969): 8; and Puech and Rofé, RB 80 (1973): 532. Cf. Cross, BASOR 193 (1969): 18, 17; Albright, "Some Comments on the 'Amman Citadel Inscription," BASOR 198 (1970): 38, 39; Kutscher, Qadmoniot 5 (1972): 27; Dion, "Notes d'épigraphie ammonite," RB 82 (1975): 32; and William J. Fulco, "The 'Amman Citadel Inscription: A New Collation," BASOR 230 (1978): 42.

168. See the brief discussion by Hoftijzer, in Aramaic Texts, pp. 294–295.

THE DIALECTAL CONTINUUM OF SYRIA-PALESTINE

The table that follows summarizes the results obtained in Chapters 2–4. Each phoneme, phonetic feature, morpheme, and syntactic feature considered relevant to dialectal division is charted throughout the individual dialects. The table offers an overview of the Northwest Semitic dialects spoken in Syria-Palestine between 1000 and 586 B.C.E.

The dialects group, and regroup, according to the individual feature examined. For example, the correspondences of *\delta (2:1)\frac{1}{2} separate Old Aramaic, Samalian, and Deir Alla from the Phoenician dialects, Ammonite, Moabite, and Hebrew. The form of the first person singular independent pronoun (3:1a) unites Phoenician dialects, Samalian, and Moabite into one group, and Old Aramaic and Hebrew into another. Yet a third feature, the form of the relative pronoun/particle (3:3), joins Old Byblian, Old Aramaic, and Samalian into one dialectal unit, standard Phoenician and Ammonite into another, and Moabite and Hebrew into a third. No two linguistic features have the identical distribution among these dialects.²

Not all linguistic features, however, are equally significant in linguistic classification.³ Since the goal of any classificatory scheme is the demonstration of a particular shared relation among speech forms, only those features reflecting shared innovations are useful

		BYBLIAN	STANDARD PHOENICIAN And T	Zkr S	Sfire Nerab	ARAMAIC b Fekh.	Halaf Adon	SAMALIAN	SAMALIAN AMMONITE DEIRALLA MOABITE EDOMITE	DEIR ALLA	MOABITE	LDOMITE	HEBREW.
(2:1)	Corresp. of *d	***	} "		[(1)] 4	((?)] (except 'an)		p (exc.: 19)	>	F2-	*		} *
(2:2)	Corresp. of "d	1 [2]	1 [Z]			(þ) 1			-		-	-	
(2:3)	Corresp. of "	x [5]	2 [5]			x [8]		31		>	*		70
(2:4)	Corresp. of 7	w [8]	w [8]		(E) a	- 6	} a	5	9	3	ь		a
	Corresp. of *d		[ò]). [8]		(à)	[ô]?		ę,		[ò]
	Corresp. of *å		$(^{\circ}a^{\circ} > a >)$ $[\mathring{o}]$ $(^{\circ}ana >)$ $[\mathring{o}]$			*(6)		(SE)	[ŏ]				(*a*>) [á] (*a*>à>) [ó] (*awa >) [á]
	Соптеѕр. оf °а		[ó] (nouns) [á] (verbs)			[4]		[4]?			্ৰ	ias .	[á] (nouns) [á] (verbs)
	°a Corresp. of	[6] wa.	[9]			[aw]		[aw, 6]	[aw]	[aw]	(au) > [0]	[aw] > [6]	[we] [0]
	2.	*ay [€]	[6]	[ay] (exc 18, etc.])	long impfs.	: na [Fekh.]	[ay] (exc.: "long" impfs.; ra [Fekh. 17]; grvs2? [Sf. III] [8, etc.])	[ay, è]	[e]	[ay]	(ay) \ (a) \		[e] [ay]
	n + consonant	(cC) (exc.: n t laryng.! (incl. *bm + PN)	[eC]		[cC] (6	[cC] (exc.: pa + X)		(exc.: 73 + X)	(cC) (incl. ps + X)	[cC] (exc.: 73 + X)	[cC] (incl. ps. + X)	[cC] (incl. 78 + X)	[cC] (exc.: BH 'yum', etc.)
(2:10)	Dissim, of emph.	OU	0u		initial °q = emph. > k + emph	emph. > k +	етрћ.	Squir		100			no
(2:1D)	Anaptyais		incipient	ושכ	incipient			no?					100

		BYBLIAN	_			ARA	ARAMAIC			SAMALIAN	SAMALIAN AMMONITE LEIN ALLA MOABITE	DEETS ALLA	MOABITE	EDOMITE	HEBREW
			PHOENICIAN And T	Zkr	Sfire	Nerab	Fekh.	Halaf	Adon		1				Z
(2:12) Prothetic 'aleph	leph		}	_			- Ě			NO.	nnwk?				
			(i) with		-					CARC.	P. K.	¥ E	Maria		
			VK	-h	- Man					NAGO NAGO	ā				
(2:13) CV" > [CV]	2		yes		- E					yes?	no?	no?	yes		yes
(2:14) Aphaeresis 'aleph	aleph	В	in PNs. when 2 positions from accent				Ę.			F		F	o u		- na:
(2:15) Syncope intervocalic yodh	tervocalic	[banaya]	[banö] erver in caus. impf.			[banå]	verb, etc.			[banā] crr darx	[band] cm/cr	[banå]	[bank (?)]	р	[banå]
(2:16) Syncope intervocalic in suff. he [wah]	tervocalic	in suff. [waha]	after i-grade			2				in caus. impf.	[waha]	in caus. impf.?	in caus. impf.		in suff. and caus. impf. [w*ha]
(2:17) Palat. he		no	* (1) 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1				8			OU	OU .	ou	no		92
(2:18a) Corresp. final	nal		[át]				(å)			[8]	ē	(g)	E		Œ
(2:18b) *-ar		האת שמע	נית כית				wer			ALCH		aptr:			* TABIT WINDT

		BYBLIAN	STANDARD		ARAMAIC	SAMALIA	SAMALIAN AMMONITE DEIR ALLA MOABITE EDOMITE.	DEIR ALLA	MOABITE	EDOMITE	HEBREW
			And T	Zkr Sfire	Nerab Fekh. Halaf Adon	Adon					S
(2:19)	Case endings	prob. m	vestigial (gen. sing.)		Po	masc. pl.		00	ои		ou
(3.1a)	Ind. pronouns: 1st sing.	, MA	AU.		ALL	¥Ľ			Jur.		ž,
(3.1b)	2nd m. vg.		['attā']		['att(a)]	['atta)]					[atta]
(3.1c)	3rd m. sg.	nuch Ren [hu'a]	Kri*		ē	Ę.		, G	ē		Ē
(3:1d)	3rd m. pl.		ran	- 6 - E							- man
(3:2a)	Demonst. pro.:	<u>g.</u>	-		je je	14(4)					F
(3.2b)	ſm. sg.	. KI	-	*	984	å			7MG		net
(3:3c)	plur.	¥	***	- x'	*	*					- Apr
(3.3)	Rel. pro. particle	۳	N/A) (i)	લંદ	W.		MAL		NOT
(3:4)	Pers. interrog. pronoun		ğ		P.	Đ	[mi]	co.			Þ
(3:5)	Def. art.	F	£;		ż	0	Ė		Ę	E.	Ė

		BYBLIAN	STANDARD PHOENICIAN ANI T	Zkr	Sfire	Nerab	ARAMAIC b Fekh.	Halaf	Adon	SAMALIAN	SAMALIAN AMMONITE DEIRALLA MOABITE EDOMITE	DEIR ALLA	MOABITE	EDOMITE	MEBREW
			}												}
(3:6a)	Noun: abs. m. pl./dual	ò	_ ÷				£			(ů. í)	۵	۵	-		ò
(3:6b)	m. pl. const.	•	[6]			3	[ay]			(0.1)	(e. i)	[ay]	[6 (2)]		av
1															}
(30.5)	ans. Im. sg.	200	(incl. ne*)			Ė į	10 > n.			ė	Ġ	Ė	ė i		ė
						E	שאת			1			me)		- acr.
(3:6d)	abs. fm. pl.		Ė		_£		_			t	£		Ė		È
			}	-	2		JAC								
(3:7)	Pl. final wk. nouns		the game	מרימת-	mad		inco			rama"		e.	ng.		- חמת
(3:8)	Fm. pl. noun + suff. like fm.	like fm. sing.	like fm. sg.			like f	like fm. sg.			٠.			like fm. sg.		like m. pl.
(3:98)	Poss. suff. on "sg." noun: 1st sg.	[i. iya]	[f. iya]				[1]			E		5	5		0
(3:9b)	3rd m. sg.	[hū] > [aw. 6] *[nnū (?)]	[ð. 19ū/ī]			£	[ih (?)]			Ė	Ė	ė	ė		[0]
(3:9b)	3rd fm. sg.	"[hā]	(å, iyå) [mnä (?)]			(a)	[ah(a)]			Ė			(åh)		
(3:90)	Ist pl.		(nů, ôn)			lan	[an, na]								[nn]
(3:9d)	3rd m. pl.		[óm, nóm]		[hum]		[am]	Ē	[hum]			9.			[âm, hem]
Osa)	(3:10a) Poss. suff. em pl. nouns: 2nd m. sg.					æ	[ayk]					[ayk]			(aykā)

		BYBLIAN	STANDARD	-	ARAMAIC	SAMALIAN AMMONITE THE ALLA MOABITE	AMMONITE	DES ALLA	MOABITE	EDOMITE	HEBREW
			And T	Zkr Sfire Nerab	Fekh. Halaf Adon						S Z
(4.7b)	inf. in temp. clause	110.3	ou		No	OU		no	yes		yes
(4:7c)	inf. Its finite verb		yes		no	00		OU	no		Oll
(4:8)	Narrative, past tense		inf. abs.	consec. p	perfect	perf.		consec. imperf.	consec. imperf.		consec. Impf.
(4.9)	Participle: periph, tense	ОП	l example		000?	OU	no?	no?	DQ.		l example
(4:10)	"to be able" + complem. vb.		inf.	inf. (1 example)?	imperfect	inf.?					inf.
(4:1)	Verbal sentence: position of finite verb	initial (generally)	initial (exc.: ind. pro. + perfect)	initial (exc.: emphasis)	initial and noninitial	initial (exc.: emph.)	initial	initial and initial noninitial (exc	initial (exc.: emph.)		initial (exc.:
(4:12)	Marking or nonmarking of definite, nominal direct object	unmarked usually unmark marked for "empha	usually unmarked marked orily for "emphasis"	usually un- marked, marked only for 'emphasis'	unmarked	unmarked		6.	unmarked; or marked for "em-		usually
(4.13)	Cond. Sentence: marking or nonmarking of apodosis	unmarked	unmarked market with	un marked once with -a	unmarked	unmarked; marked once with -p		unmarked			marked with

outcome, but the history of the outcome, is important in linguistic classification. 17

Finally, a feature must not be borrowed but must represent a native linguistic development. For example, if m'day' in southern Hebrew was borrowed from the northern dialect, the absence of waw does not reflect any phonological feature of the southern dialect. On the contrary, the absence of waw reflects the phonological pattern of the donor dialect. Since borrowings do not necessarily participate in the changes of the recipient dialect, they must be excluded from a classificatory scheme.

Linguistic classification, or subgrouping, must begin with shared innovations. "A shared innovation is one which cannot be due to chance (i.e. to independent linguistic change) or to separate borrowing." Only those features which reflect shared development provide the basis for a classificatory scheme.

Yet a single shared innovation in itself is insufficient, since the innovation may be coincidental.²³ In order to obviate this objection, it is customary to isolate sets of shared innovations;²⁴ the greater the number of innovations shared by certain speech forms, the smaller the likelihood of independent duplication. And the greater the number of shared innovations, the greater the likelihood of common linguistic development.

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A preliminary evaluation of features examined in Chapters 2–4 suggests that classes of features are of different value in classifying the NWS dialects. Syntax, for example, is an unreliable tool. A syntactic feature may reflect a well-attested innovation and not demonstrate any particular shared history, as in the use of the perfect as the narrative, past tense (4:8), the appearance of a periphrastic tense (4:9), and the marking of apodoses (4:13). Analogical formations and extensions were also frequent, as for example the agreement between a noun and demonstrative pronoun (4:2) and probably the use of the *nota accusativi* to introduce nominal direct objects (4:12);²⁵ as in phonology and morphology, analogical formations and extensions in syntax do not reflect a shared linguistic development in the history of particular speech forms. Finally, syntactic retentions—the use of the infinitive to form temporal clauses (4:7b), the consecutive imperfect as the narrative tense (4:8), verb-initial syntax

Within these parameters, the distinctive innovations of each dialect can be categorized as follows:

OLD BYBLIAN

Analogical formations

The absolute masc. plural/dual nominal ending p- (3:6a)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to all following nonlaryngeal consonants (2:9), and its extention to *bin "son" + PN (2:9)

The correspondence *at:[ā] in the later form שמע "she heard" (2:18b; 3:17c)

Shared innovations

The merger of *d and *s (2:1), *d and *z (2:2), *t and *s (2:3), and *t and *s (2:4).

The monophthongization of all diphthongs (2:8)

The syncope of intervocalic *he* in the third person masc. sing. suffix (2:16; 3:9b)

The definite article he (3:5)

The masc. plural construct ending *ay (3:6b)

The third person masc, sing, suffix on masc, plural nouns [aw (?)] (3:10b) (attested only later)

The conditional particle אל (3:15b)

The ending of initial weak qal inf. constructs in n- (3:21b)

In the later phase of this dialect, certain phonological and morphological features had changed. For example, the *nun* in *bin 'son' no longer assimilated to the initial consonant of the following PN, the masculine sing. demonstrative pronoun [7] (3:2a) was replaced by t, and the relative pronoun -7 (3:3) was replaced by wx. Each of these changes in the later phase of Byblian was traceable to the influence of standard Phoenician.²⁹

STANDARD PHOENICIAN

Analogical formations

The absolute masc. plural/dual nominal ending p- (3:6a)

The first person sing. perfect ending [tī] (3:17a)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to the following consonant within a word (2:9)

Incipient anaptyxis (2:11)

The complete absorption of syllable-closing *aleph* to the preceding vowel (2:13)

The correspondence *at:[ā] in third person fem. sing. perfect verbs (2:18b; 3:17c)

The form of the nota accusativi (3:15a)

The merger of indicative and jussive verbal forms (3:18a, 18b)

The merger of the middle weak D-stem and the pôlel (3:22b) (?)

Shared innovations

The merger of *d and *s (2:1), *d and *z (2:2), *t and *s (2:3), and *t and *s (2:4)

The change of $*\hat{a}$ to $[\hat{o}]$ (2:5), and its extention to all nonverbal accented *a*-vowels (2:6–7)

The monophthongization of all diphthongs (2:8)

The usual syncope of intervocalic *yodh* (2:15)

The syncope of intervocalic he (even after the conjunction *wa) (2:16), except after i-vowels (2:17, etc.)

The masc. sing. demonstrative pronoun t "this" (3:2a) (?)

The relative particle אש (3:3)

The personal, interrogative pronoun w (3:4)

The definite article he (3:5)

The masc. plural construct ending *ay (3:6b)

A special plural formation of final weak nouns (3:7)

The vocalization of the strong gal inf. construct [liqtol] (3:19a)

The ending of initial and final weak inf. constructs in n- (3:21b, 23f)

The replacement of *bāniy- by *bānay- in the masc. plural participle (3:23g)

The imperfect form [yiqqah] (3:25a)

The ending of the qal inf. of יto take" in ח- (3:25b)

While it appears that most Phoenician-speaking communities participated in these innovations, Arslan Tash³⁰ deviated from this pattern in two respects. The absolute masc, plural/dual nominal ending was 1-, and the first person sing, perfect morpheme may have been [t(u/i)]. These two features were, in all probability, borrowed from Old Aramaic which was spoken in this community at that time.31

OLD ARAMAIC

Analogical formations

The term for nonexistence ליש (3:14) (?)

The tG stem (3:16a)

The treatment of the middle weak radical as a strong root letter in certain verbal forms (3:22a, 22b)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to the following consonant within a word (2:9)

The correspondence *át:[á] (2:18a; 3:6c)

The loss of final short vowels (2:19; see also 3:9a)

The form of the nota accusativi (3:15a)

The position of the term for nonexistence in the sentence (4:4c)

Shared innovations

The correspondence $*d:\mathfrak{p}(2:1)$

The dissimilation of emphatics: q +emphatic > k +emphatic (2:10)

The aphaeresis of aleph in an "one" (2:14)

The first person sing, independent pronoun אנה (3:1a)

The definite article κ - (3:5)

The masc. plural construct ending *ay (3:6b)

A special plural formation of final weak nouns (3:7)

The third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns [awh(i)] (3:10b)

The loss of the *niphal* (3:16b)

The pael and haphel inf. construct of strong verbs ending in n-(3:19b)

The *peal* passive participle **qatīl* (3:20)

The loss of the initial radical and the doubling of the second in imperfect and certain nominal forms of ישב* "to sit, dwell" and ידע "to know" (3:21a)

The form of the indicative and jussive sing. of final weak verbs in π - and γ -, respectively (3:23d)

The replacement of *bāniy- by *bānay- in the masc. plural (undetermined) participle (3:23g)

The pael and haphel of final weak roots, third person masc. sing., in [bannî] and [habnî], respectively (3:23h) (?)³²

The imperfect form [yiqqah] (3:25a)

While most Aramaic-speaking communities exhibited these innovations, there were certain speech variants in each community.³³

ALEPPO: In three passages of the Zkr Text, the consecutive imperfect functioned as the historical past tense (4:8). Since this usage was a common NWS trait,³⁴ this feature was a retention here. It does not suggest any dialectal affinities.³⁵

sfire: 36 Several dialectal variations resulted from analogy or extention—the plural demonstrative pronoun אלן (3:2c), the absolute fem. plural nominal ending ן- (3:6d), perhaps the imperfect form [yilqaḥ] (3:25a), and the use of -b to mark the apodosis of conditions (4:13). Incipient anaptyxis (2:11), the prothetic aleph in אשם "name" (2:12), and the possible loss of medial aleph in בירא "well (?)" (2:13) are well-attested, Semitic phonetic developments. There is also one possible example of an infinitive complement to "to be able" (4:10), and final weak nominal plurals were formed like strong plurals (3:7). The combination of these features distinguished Sfire-Aramaic from the other Old Aramaic dialects. ""

NERAB: Like other Old Aramaic dialects, initial *q + emphatic dissimilated to k + emphatic (2:10), and the third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns was [awh(i)] (3:10b). ³⁸ The position of the verb in the sentence, however, was flexible (4:11). ³⁹

FEKHERIYEH: 40 In addition to the innovations characteristic of Old Aramaic, this dialect exhibited several others—the third person plural possessive suffixes p-/1- (2:16; 3:9d) and the *peal* inf. construct *miqtal (3:19a). The flexibility in the placement of the verb in the sentence (4:11) might be another Fekh. innovation shared with other NWS dialects, unless it developed independently. Fekh.-Aramaic did not, however, participate in every Old Aramaic innovation. For example, the *t*-stem of the G was Gt in Fekh. (3:16a), not the an-

alogical tG. Further, the pael and haphel inf. constructs ended in £ (3:19b), not n-. Both of these features were retentions in Fekh. Finally, other dialectal features at Fekh. were the precative lamedh (3:15d), the merger of the middle weak D-stem and the pālel (3:22b), the fem. sing. demonstrative pronoun nxt (3:2b), the imperfect formation [yilqah] (3:25a), and the genitive particle x (4:3a). These features were independent developments, analogical formations, or retentions.

HALAF: This dialect had a new form of the third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns [ayh(i)] (3:10b). This dialect also had a genitive particle w (4:3a) and a great flexibility in the placement of the verb in the sentence (4:11). The suffixed form [ayh(i)] and flexibility in verb placement are features characteristic of later eastern Aramaic.

ADON LETTER (southern Palestine):⁴¹ Like Fekh,-Aramaic, this dialect had a *miqtal peal inf. construct (3:19a), the genitive particle 17 (4:3a), and flexibility in the placement of the verb in main clauses (4:11).

SAMALIAN

Analogical formations

The cardinal decade ending in >- (3:12) (?)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to the following consonant within a word (2:9)

The use of the prothetic aleph (2:12)

The possible absorption of *aleph* to the preceding vowel (2:13)

The correspondence * $\acute{a}t$:[\acute{a}] (2:18a; 3:6c)

The loss of final short vowels (2:19; see also 3:9a)

The form of the nota accusativi (3:15a)

The merger of indicative and jussive verbal forms (3:18a, 18b, 23d)

Shared innovations

The correspondence *d:p (2:1)

The monophthongization of final diphthongs (2:8)

The possible dissimilation of emphatics in קשת "truth" (2:10)

The aphaeresis of aleph in ¬¬¬ "one" (2:14) (unless borrowed) The syncope of intervocalic yodh (except in ביד "in the hand

[of]") (2:15)

The syncope of causative he in the imperfect (2:16)

The *peal* passive participle **gatīl* (3:20)

The loss of the initial radical and the doubling of the second in imperfect and certain nominal forms of ישב "to sit, dwell" and ידע* "to know" (3:21a)

The ending of indicative and jussive final weak verbs, sing. persons in - (3:23d)

The pael and haphel of final weak verbs, third person masc. sing., in [bannî] and [habnî], respectively (3:23h) (?)⁴²

The imperfect form [yiqqah] (3:25a)

AMMONITE

Analogical formations

The absolute masc. plural/dual nominal ending p- (3:6a)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to any following consonant (2:9)

The use of the prothetic aleph before consonant clusters with initial sibilants (2:12)

Shared innovations

The merger of *d and *s (2:1)

The merger of $*\hat{a}$ and $[\hat{o}]$ (2:5), and its extention to $*\hat{a}$: $[\hat{o}]$ (2:6)

The monophthongization of *uy (2:8)

The loss of intervocalic *yodh* (including the PN בראל) (2:15)

The relative particle שא (3:3)

The personal, interrogative pronoun [mī] (3:4)

The definite article he (3:5)

DEIR ALLA

Analogical formations

The tG stem (?) (3:16a)

The third person fem. plural imperfect 1- -n (3:18c)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to the following consonant within a word (2:9)

The possible use of the prothetic aleph (2:12)

The correspondence *át:[a] (2:18a; 3:6c), and *at:[a] in שמה (2:18b)

The loss of final short vowels (2:19; see also 3:9a)

The merger of indicative and jussive verbal forms in the second/third persons plural (3:18a, 18b)

Shared innovations

The correspondence *d:p (2:1)

The aphaeresis of *aleph* in ¬¬ "one" (2:14) (unless borrowed)

The syncope of causative he in the imperfect (2:16)

The masc. plural construct ending *ay (3:6b)

The third person mase, sing, suffix on plural nouns [awh(u/i)] (3:10b)

The ending of initial weak inf. constructs in π- (3:21b)

The form of the indicative and jussive sing. of final weak verbs in and respectively (3:23d)

The imperative of הלך "to go" formed from the root יולך (3:24b)

The imperfect form [yiqqah] (3:25a)

The possible flexibility in the placement of the verb in main clauses (4:11) (unless an independent development)

MOABITE

Analogical formations

The first person sing, perfect ending [tī] (3:17a)

The imperfect form ואהלך (3:24a) (?)

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to any following consonant (2:9)

The use of the prothetic *aleph* before sibilants (2:12)

The absorption of syllable-closing *aleph* into the preceding vowel (2:13)

The loss of final short vowels (2:19; see also 3:9a)

The fem. sing. demonstrative pronoun זאת "this" (3:2b) (unless inherited)

The position of the term for nonexistence in the sentence (4:4c)

Shared innovations

The merger of *d and *s (2:1)

The possible tonic lengthening of short vowels (2:7)

The gradual monophthongization of diphthongs (2:8)

The syncope of causative he in the imperfect (2:16)

The relative particle אשר (3:3)

The definite article he (3:5)

The masc. plural construct ending *av (3:6b)

The third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns [ôh(u/i) (?)] (3:10b)

The form of the *nota accusativi* אית < אית (3:15a)

The possible loss of the *niphal* (3:16b)

The ending of initial weak inf. constructs in n- (3:21b)

The apocopation of the final syllable in certain forms of final weak consecutive imperfects (3:23d)

The imperative of הלך "to go" formed from the root לילר (3:24b)

The imperfect form [yiqqah] (3:25a)

EDOMITE

Independent developments

The assimilation of *nun* to any following consonant (2:9)

Shared innovations

The monophthongization of diphthongs (in later texts) (2:8) The syncope of yodh in בר "through" < *bali-yad (2:15) The definite article he (3:5)

HEBREW

Analogical formations

The first person sing. independent pronoun אני (3:1a)

The absolute masc. plural/dual nominal ending b- (3:6a)

The connecting vowel *ay on feminine plural suffixed nouns (3:8)

The first person plural possessive suffix 12- (3:9c) (?)

The first person sing, perfect ending [tī] (3:17a)

The third person fem. plural imperfect ה- -נה (3:18c)

Independent developments

The assimilation of nun to the following consonant (except in 1") verbs [BH]) (2:9)

The absorption of syllable-closing aleph into the preceding vowel (2:13)

The correspondence * $\hat{a}t$:[\hat{a}] (2:18a; 3:6c) and *at:[\hat{a}] (2:18b; 3:1d)

The loss of final short vowels (2:19; see also 3:9a)

The fem. sing. demonstrative pronoun זאת "this" (3:2b) (unless inherited)

The merger of indicative and jussive verbal forms in the second/third persons plural (3:18a, 18b)

The merger of the middle weak D-stem and the pôlel (3:22b) (?)

Shared innovations

The merger of *d and *s (2:1), *d and *z (2:2), *t and *s (2:3), and *t and *š (2:4)

The correspondence $*\hat{a}:[\hat{o}]$ (2:5), and $*\hat{a}':[\hat{o}]$ (in doubly closed syllables) (2:6)

The tonic lengthening of nonverbal short vowels (2:7)

The syncope of intervocalic he in third person suffixes (under certain conditions) and in the causative imperfect (2:16)

The masc. sing. demonstrative pronoun at "this" (3:2a) (?)

The relative particle אשר (3:3)

The personal, interrogative pronoun 3:4)

The definite article he (3:5)

The masc. plural construct ending *ay (3:6b)

The third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns [āw] (3:10b)

The form of the *nota accusativi* אית < אית * (3:15a)

The vocalization of the strong gal inf. construct [ligtol] (3:19a)

The imperfect of ישב "to sit, dwell" and ידע "to know" as [yēšeb], etc. (3:21a)

The ending of initial (including "to take") and final weak inf. constructs in n- (3:21b, 23f, 25b)

The replacement of *banay- by *baniy- in the first person sing. gal perfect (3:23a)

The use of a monosyllabic base *ban- in forming certain final weak verbal forms (3:23c, 23e [?], 23g)

and the doubling of the second in imperfect and certain nominal forms of ישב "to sit, dwell" and ידע "to know" (3:21a), etc.— occurred, in varying degress, in Old Aramaic, Samalian, Deir Alla, and Moabite. Only the Old Aramaic dialects, however, bore the entirety of these innovations. Thus, standard Phoenician and Old Aramaic (as a dialect group) constituted the two major linguistic centers of Syro-Palestinian NWS. In terms of a dialect continuum, standard Phoenician and Old Aramaic were the linguistic extremes.

For those dialects lying between these two poles, standard Phoenician and Old Aramaic were competing forces. They are as follows:

AMMONITE: In addition to the features common to all Canaanite dialects—such as the correspondences $*\dot{q}:[\$]$, $*\dot{q}:[z]$, the definite article he, etc.—the correspondence $*\dot{a}:[\dot{\delta}]$ (2:6) and the relative particle $w\kappa$ (3:3) strongly align Ammonite with standard Phoenician. ⁴⁷ In terms of the available data, these two features were innovations shared exclusively between standard Phoenician and Ammonite. ⁴⁸

EDOMITE: The form of the preposition בד "through" < *bali-yad (2:15) allies this dialect with Ammonite (in the PN בדאל) and standard Phoenician. Further, if the correspondence *á:[á] (2:7) is confirmed in Edomite, this feature forms a bond with Hebrew; in standard Phoenician, *á:[ó].

HEBREW: The standard Phoenician affiliation of Hebrew is seen in the correspondences * \dot{a} :[\dot{o}] (2:5), * \dot{a} ':[\dot{o}] (in doubly closed syllables) (2:6), the preservation of * \dot{a} in verbs (2:7), the almost complete syncope of intervocalic he (2:16), the inf. construct of initial (including יילוס take'') and final weak verbs ending in n- (3:21b, 23f, 25b), etc.

Several innovations, however, appear to have been native to this dialect. For example, the relative particle אשר (3:3), the nota accusativi את (cf. את in standard Phoenician and Old Aramaic) (3:15a), and the apocopation of the final syllable in certain forms of final weak jussives and consecutive imperfects (3:23d) were innovations absent from standard Phoenician.

MOABITE: Although most of its phonological and morphological innovations were shared with Phoenician. Moabite possessed several Hebraic innovations: the possible tonic lengthening of short vowels (2:7), the relative particle אמר (3:3), the nota accusativi אמר (3:15a), and the apocopation of the final syllable in certain forms of final weak consecutive imperfects (3:23d). Moabite also shared the

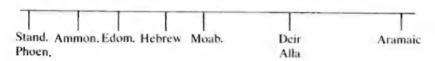
form of the third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns, $[\hat{o}h(u/i)]$ (3:10b), with Old Aramaic. Further, an interesting feature connecting Moabite with northern dialects is the form of "year"— $nw < *\check{s}an-t$ (3:6c), in which the fem. ending -t was added to the *CaC base; it is uncertain, however, whether this form was an innovation.

DEIR ALLA: The Deir Alla dialect reflects the basic phonological innovations of Old Aramaic: the correspondence *d;p (2:1) and the aphaeresis of aleph in אחר" (2:14) (unless borrowed). Further, the form of the third person masc. sing. suffix on plural nouns [awh(u/i)] (3:10b) is a morphological innovation aligning Deir Alla with Old Aramaic. Yet the syncope of causative he in imperfects (2:16), the ending of initial weak inf. constructs in אולף (3:21b), and the imperative of אולף "to go" formed from אולף (3:24b) were innovations native to Hebrew and standard Phoenician. Since no changes peculiar to standard Phoenician or Hebrew can be recognized in Deir Alla, the source of these innovations cannot be pinpointed.

« » « »

At one linguistic extreme of the dialect chain is standard Phoenician, and at the other end is Old Aramaic. Of the dialects known, Ammonite was most closely related to standard Phoenician. Edomite was related to Phoenician as well as to Hebrew. On this dialectal continuum, Hebrew lies closer to standard Phoenician than it does to Old Aramaic. Moabite was most closely related to Hebrew; it also possessed distinctive Aramaic features. The Deir Alla dialect shared some features with Hebrew (and Canaanite), but most of its phonological and morphological inventory was derived from Old Aramaic. Finally, Old Aramaic lies at the end of the continuum.

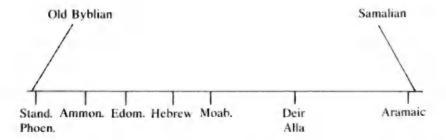
In graphic form, this dialect continuum appears as:



The position of Hebrew, however, in terms of this continuum, is unclear because it did not exhibit any diagnostic Aramaic traits. Rather, its unique characteristics suggest that Hebrew was a minor

mark definite, nominal direct objects (4:12) were retentions. They also appeared in, for example, Ugaritic.54 Yet, unlike Ugaritic, Samalian was an eighth-century dialect. Samalian participated in many, but not all of the changes in Old Aramaic.55 Samalian, then, developed from the same lineage as Old Aramaic, but its development was arrested at an early date. In terms of contemporary, eighthcentury dialects, Samalian was therefore archaic.

In terms of the dialectal continuum of Syria-Palestine, a more accurate presentation of the linguistic situation is:



The dialect chain runs from standard Phoenician, through Hebrew and Moabite, to Old Aramaic. Old Byblian constitutes a dialect island on the Phoenician side, and Samalian forms another on the Aramaic extremity.

The preserved literature of this period supplements this view of NWS dialectal relations. II Kgs. 18:26 = Is. 36:11 relates that Hebrew and Old Aramaic, ca. 700 B.C.E., were not mutually intelligible. Further, according to Jer. 27:3, three-quarters of a century later, Jeremiah's speech was assumed to be understood by people knowing standard Phoenician, Ammonite, Edomite, and Moabite. 56 The Bible therefore indicates that dialects on the left side of this continuum—standard Phoenician through Moabite—were mutually intelligible.⁵⁷ Hebrew and Old Aramaic were not.⁵⁸ It would follow, then, that an Aramaic speaker did not understand any other Canaanite dialect lying to the left of Hebrew on the continuum either. Yet it is suggested that those dialects toward the center of the continuum, perhaps even Moabite and the Deir Alla dialect themselves, were, in fact, mutually intelligible. In other words, the farther away two dialects lay on the continuum, the smaller the chance of mutual intelligibility; the closer the proximity on the continuum, the higher the probability of mutual intelligibility.59

Nonlinguistic evidence further supports this view of the NWS dialectal continuum. For example, the overall character of a speech form can be correlated with its physical position on a map. The Samalian dialect, to take one case, was spoken in far north Syria. Samal was located in very rough terrain, and the Amanus mountains further blocked communication with neighboring communities.⁶⁰ The seclusion of this state, then, from principal Aramaic-speaking communities contributed to its arrested linguistic development.⁶¹

The inventory of linguistic features in Ammonite, also, was affected by its geographical position on the Transjordanian periphery. Ammonite, on the one hand, was a Phoenician-related dialect. On the other hand, it did not participate in all Phoenician innovations. The recognizable retentions—the preservation of *aw (2:8), the retention of initial and medial aleph (2:13, 14), the imperfect plural ending [ūn] (3:18b)—are probably attributable to its physical distance from Phoenicia; this Transjordanian dialect received some, but not all, innovations from the Phoenician center. ⁶² Interestingly, however, Ammonite showed no innovations shared exclusively with Old Aramaic.

In a similar fashion, the progressive monophthongization in Moabite can be understood by the gradual diffusion of this innovation from the source dialect; it took time to reach, and cover, all Moab. It took even more time for this innovation to reach Edom, for *aw did not contract until a very late period. Monophthongization in Ammonite affected only *ay. Finally, all diphthongs were preserved in Deir Alla. In Transjordan, then, monophthongization affected the dialects in different degrees; geographical removal from the innovating dialect was, at least in part, responsible for the different outcomes.

The location of southern Hebrew in southernmost Syria-Palestine promoted its rather unique character. Its several retentions—for example, the preservation of * \hat{a} < *awa/*aya and * a^3 (2:6), the preservation of diphthongs (2:8), the directive he (3:15c), the use of the consecutive imperfect as the narrative tense (4:8), etc.—to some extent resulted from its geographical distance from the two principal linguistic centers. Further, the diffusion of several Hebraic innovations to neighboring Moabite, despite the barrier afforded by the Dead Sea, was facilitated, at least in part, by geographical proximity.

The development of southern Hebrew, and its relation to Moabite. then, were related to physical geography.

Physical geography also explains the recognizable deviations in northern Hebrew from the pattern of the southern dialect. Whereas southern Hebrew resisted monophthongization, the northern dialect followed the pattern of standard Phoenician, its neighbor. Also, the form of "year," שת, joins northern Hebrew and standard Phoenician (see also Moabite שנה), in contrast to שנה (BH). These features, then, spread into the neighboring Israelite state but stopped at the Judean border. 63

Additionally, the presence of certain linguistic features in northern Hebrew can be inferred on the basis of its geographic position. Since this dialect lay physically between standard Phoenician (innovator) and Ammonite (recipient), the presence of innovations in the flanking regions would suggest their presence in the intermediate region as well.64 For example, that both standard Phoenician and Ammonite shared the relative particle אש (3:3) suggests that northern Hebrew also had a relative w(x). 65 Further, standard Phoenician and Ammonite exhibited the correspondence *\delta: \[\bar{0} \] (2:6) in contrast, for example, to BH * \hat{a} :[\hat{a}] (except * \hat{a} < * \hat{a} in doubly closed syllables). Perhaps northern Hebrew deviated from the BH pattern and followed that of its lateral dialects; northern Hebrew, then, would have had the correspondence *\hat{a}:[\doc{0}] as well. 66 This dialect, then, might have shared several features with standard Phoenician-Ammonite which did not reach southern Hebrew or which are not preserved in BH.67

The relative isolation of the Aramean states in the North likewise had its effect upon the linguistic development of Aramaic. Its numerous phonological, morphological, and syntactic retentions for example, the preservation of *d(2:2), *t(2:3), *t(2:4), all a-vowels (2:5-7), diphthongs (2:8), all initial and medial alephs (except in אוד "one") (2:13–14), the preservation of intervocalic he (2:16), the personal, interrogative pronoun m (3:4), the coordinating conjunction בּ (3:13), the distinction between indicative and jussive verbal forms (3:18a, 18b, 23d, 23e), the nonmarking of apodoses (4:13), etc. may be explained by its geographical location; only in the far South was Aram bordered by NWS-speaking peoples. As was the case with Samalian, isolation facilitated these numerous retentions.⁶⁸

In all these cases, however, physical geography was only indirectly responsible for the diffusion or arresting of linguistic change. The degree to which physical geography affected human communication is the central issue, not simply the presence or absence of physical obstacles. A natural barrier may have corresponded to a language boundary only if it prevented communication.⁶⁹

Just as physical geography sometimes affected linguistic relations among these NWS dialects, so too historical, political, and economic factors influenced their internal composition and interrelation. The degree of political unification, for example, may have affected the dialectal makeup of an area. 70 The contrast between the speech of the Aramean states and of Judah is especially telling in this respect. The Aramean states had a number of local dialects; in fact, according to the present evidence, no two Syrian Aramaicspeaking communities spoke the identical dialect in this period.⁷¹ Geographically proximate dialects could be similar, as for example Aleppo- and Sfire-Aramaic. Or two neighboring Old Aramaic dialects could differ, as for example the dialects of Nerab and Aleppo. This heterogeneity may be traced, in some measure, to the lack of political unification among the Aramean states. Each state was largely independent, and the states joined forces for specific military needs. Afterward the union would dissolve. Throughout the early first millennium B.C.E., no single governmental system united all the Aramean states under one rubric.

The linguistic situation in Judah was very different. According to the present evidence, Judah was a single linguistic entity. The texts from Jerusalem, Arad, Yavneh-Yam, and Lachish (somewhat later) showed identical phonology, 72 morphology, and syntax. This linguistic unity may be accounted for, in some degree, by the political and religious centralization of the southern kingdom, beginning in David's time. Jerusalem was the cultural and political center, and it was this centralization which may have had its influence on linguistic development as well. In view of the overall sociopolitical structure of Syria-Palestine, however, this situation was very much atypical.

This unification of the South created a barrier between it and non-Judean communities. There were no major physical boundaries between North and South; rather, the religious/cultural differences which arose, already in the early first millennium, created a strong barrier between peoples. Linguistic differences therefore ensued.

Historical and political factors were also responsible, in part at least, for the linguistic similarity between southern Hebrew and Moabite. By Saul's time, Moab had been captured by Israel (I Sam. 14:47–48). David left his parents in the care of the Moabite king (I Sam. 22:3–4); later, he too subjugated Moab, and all Transjordan, making it a vassat state (II Sam. 8:2). And by the time of Solomon, Israel and Moab were on friendly terms; Solomon even married Moabite women (I Kgs. 11:1). Israel, then, had won sway over Moab by this time, and the effect of this dominion may be seen in the linguistic similarity between Moabite and southern Hebrew.

Whereas polity and sociocultural factors influenced the NWS dialects at this time, economic factors were also important. For example, economic strength probably accounts for much of Phoenicia's linguistic control over southern Syria-Palestine. Since the inland communities were largely dependent upon the materials and goods arriving in the Phoenician ports, those ports became important economic and sociocultural centers. Linguistic changes could spread throughout the area via intricate trade routes crossing Palestine and Transjordan. In this way, such formidable geographical barriers as Mount Lebanon were largely overcome. And even after the decline of Phoenician inland trade, its linguistic hold over the area was already secure.⁷³

Thus a number of factors influenced the linguistic complexion of first-millennium Syria-Palestine. Geographical proximity, or distance, from linguistic centers affected the degree to which changes were received. Political, economic, cultural-religious, and military factors likewise affected the dialectal makeup of the area. As in any area, the linguistic picture of Syria-Palestine resulted from an intricate series of linguistic, geographical, and historical factors.

Notes to Chapter 5

- The numbers in parentheses indicate the chapter and section number where the feature was discussed.
- Leonard Bloomfield, Language (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1933), p. 328.
 - 3. Cf. p. 3.
- 4. The classic formulation is that of Karl Brugmann, "Zur Frage nach den Verwandtschaftsverhältnissen der indogermanischen Sprachen," Internationale Zeitschrift für allgemeine Sprachwissenschaft 1 (1884): 226–256, esp. pp. 252, 253. See also C. Douglas Chrétien, "Shared Innovations and Subgrouping," IJAL 29 (1963): 66–68.
- 5. Joseph H. Greenberg, Essays in Linguistics (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957), p. 49.

- 6. For example, Sabatino Moscati, "Il semitico di nord-ovest," in Studi orientalistici in onore di Giorgio Levi Della Vida, Pubblicazioni dell'Istituto per l'Oriente, no. 52. 2 vols. (Rome: Istituto per l'Oriente, 1956), 2:215. Cf. Paul-E. Dion, La langue de Ya'udi (Waterloo, Ont.: The Corporation for the Publication of Academic Studies in Religion in Canada. 1974), p. 325. See also Chapter 3, no. 2a with n. 29.
- 7. Dion, La langue, pp. 137-138 (earlier literature on pp. 437-438 n. 33). See also Chapter 3, no. 5, with n. 93.
- 8. See Chapter 3, no. 16b, with n. 288. Cf. Jo Ann Carlton (Hackett), "Studies in the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Alla" (Ph.D. dissertation, Harvard University, 1980), p. 188; and idem, "The Dialect of the Plaster Text from Tell Deir 'Alla," Or 53 (1984): 62, 65.
- 9. Greenberg, Essays, p. 51; and Theodora Bynon, Historical Linguistics (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1977), p. 34.
 - 10. See Chapter 3, no. 17a, and p. 31.
 - 11. See Chapter 3, no. 18c, with n. 328.
- 12. On the phenomenon, see Antoine Meillet, Linguistique historique et linguistique générale, Nouveau tirage. 2 vols. (Paris: Édouard Champion, 1948-1951), 1:36-43; and more generally, Edward Sapir, Language (New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1921), pp. 157-182.
 - 13. Carl Brockelmann, GvG 1:§46a.
 - 14. See pp. 26-27. Cf. B-L §2k'.
 - 15. See Chapter 2, no. 9 with n. 165.
 - 16. See Chapter 3. no. 15a.
- 17. See Robert A. Hall, "Bartoli's 'Neolinguistica,' Lg. 22 (1946): 281. Cf. J. K. Chambers and Peter Trudgill, *Dialectology* (Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1980), pp. 163ff.
 - 18. See, for example, Greenberg, Essays, p. 47.
 - 19. See Chapter 2, no. 8.
 - 20. Cf. p. 39.
- 21. See Bynon, *Historical Linguistics*, pp. 217–232; and Stephen A. Kaufman, *The Akkadian Influences on Aramaic*, Assyriological Studies, vol. 19 (Chicago/London: The University of Chicago Press, 1974), pp. 19–22.
- 22. Isidore Dyen, "[Review of Dahl, Malgache et maanjan]," Lg. 29 (1953): 580.
 - 23. Greenberg, Essays, pp. 51, 53.
- 24. Bloomfield, *Language*, p. 342; Dyen, *Lg*. 29 (1953): 580–581; and Greenberg, *Essays*, p. 53.
- 25. On the latter, see Paul Jouon, Grammaire de l'hébreu biblique (Rome: Pontifical Biblical Institute, 1923), p. 368 n. 2.
- 26. See Henry M. Hoenigswald, "Criteria for the Subgrouping of Languages," in *Ancient Indo-European Dialects*, ed. Henrik Birnbaum and Jaan Puhvel (Berkeley/Los Angeles: University of California Press, 1966), pp. 6-7. Cf. Greenberg, *Essays*, p. 50.
- 27. Cf., for example, I. J. Gelb, "Thoughts about Ibla," SMS 1/1 (1977): 17.

- 55. Franz Rosenthal, "[Review of Dion, *La langue*]," *JBL* 95 (1976): 154; and Dion, *JNES* 37 (1978): 118.
- 56. So D. S. Margoliouth, "Language of the Old Testament," in A Dictionary of the Bible, ed. James Hastings. 4 vols. (New York/Edinburgh: Charles Scribner's Sons/T. & T. Clark, 1900), 3:30.
- 57. See already Friedrich, "Zum Phönizisch-Punischen," ZS 2 (1923): 4–5; and Harris, *Development*, p. 94. Cf. Rosenthal, "[Review of Friedrich, *PPG*]," *JAOS* 72 (1952): 171–172.
- 58. For the lexical implication of mutual intelligibility, see Harold Hickerson, Glen D. Turner, and Nancy P. Hickerson, "Testing Procedures for Estimating Transfer of Information among Iroquois Dialects and Languages," *IJAL* 18 (1952): 1–8.
- 59. For a developmental view of the continuum, see Friedrich, Scientia 84 (1949): 220–223; and Moscati, in Studi . . . Levi Della Vida, p. 218. See also J. Hoftijzer, "Interpretation and Grammar," in Aramaic Texts from Deir Alla, ed. J. Hoftijzer and G. van der Kooij. Documenta et Monumenta Orientis Antiqui, vol. 19 (Leiden: E. J. Brill, 1976), pp. 300, 301.
- 60. Alkim, cited in Irene J. Winter, "On the Problems of Karatepe: The Reliefs and Their Context," AS 29 (1979): 134 n. 87.
- Sekine, JSS 18 (1973): 215. See also Bloomfield, Language, p. 334.
- 62. See, generally, Wolfram von Soden, "Zur Einteilung der semitischen Sprachen," WZKM 56 (1960): 190.
- 63. See William L. Moran, "The Hebrew Language in its Northwest Semitic Background," in *The Bible and the Ancient Near East*. ed. G. Ernest Wright (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., 1961), p. 59.
- 64. For the reasoning, see Bloomfield, Language, p. 340; Hans Kurath, Handbook of the Linguistic Geography of New England, 2nd ed. (New York: AMS Press, 1973), p. 5; and Chambers and Trudgill, Dialectology, p. 109.
- So, already, Brockelmann, GvG 1:\$109gα. Cf. Gotthelf Bergsträsser, "Das hebräische Präfix w." ZAW 29 (1909): 41–45. See also p. 150 n. 55a.
- 66. Could this general phonetic change be the origin of [ô] in BH ראש "head" and און "sheep"?
- 67. In terms of the dialectal continuum of Syria-Palestine, northern Hebrew may lie between standard Phoenician and Ammonite, in contrast to the position of southern Hebrew on the same continuum.
- 68. Interestingly, however, both standard Phoenician and Old Aramaic exclusively shared a special plural formation of final weak nouns (3:7) and jointly replaced *bāniy- by *bānay- in the masc. plural (undetermined) participle (3:23g).
- 69. So, for example, William Labov, in Pavle Ivić, "Structure and Typology of Dialectal Differentiation," in *Proceedings of the Ninth International Congress of Linguists*... 1962, ed. Horace G. Lunt. Janua Linguarum, Series Maior, vol. 12 (London/The Hague/Paris: Mouton & Co., 1964), p. 127.

- 70. For NWS, see, for example, Harris, Grammar, p. 69.
- 71. See already Rosenthal, AF, p. 1; Kaufman, Akkadian Influences, p. 9 (cf. ibid., p. 155); and the literature cited in n. 33 above. See also Harris, Grammar, p. 10.
- 72. The correspondences of medial *iy, however, may have differed within southern Hebrew-speaking communities. See above, p. 70 n. 136.
- 73. See, generally, Bloomfield, Language, p. 343; and Bynon, Historical Linguistics, p. 183.

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About This Book

Garr's classic study on dialect geography of the Levant was the first book-length attempt in 45 years to follow in the steps of Zellig Harris (*The Development of the Canaanite Dialects*). This Eisenbrauns reprint makes this masterly, standard reference work available once again to students of the Canaanite languages.

The book opens with an introduction that explains the methodology used, a survey of past studies, the corpus of texts used in the study, and Garr's goals. The next three chapters provide a comprehensive list of phonological, morphological, and syntactical features, which are then gathered into a comprehensive table and analyzed for their relevance to classification of dialects. Conclusions and a rich bibliography follow, as well as indexes of subjects, texts cited, and words.

Praise

"This study has achieved the primary goal of scientific research, which is to introduce new ideas based on vast knowledge and sound analyses, and thus to provoke and challenge further study." — Shlomo Izre'el, in *Bulletin of the American Schools of Oriental Research*



